A MODEL FOR SELECTING MEDIA TO CHANNEL INFORMATION ABOUT OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION TO TARGET POPULATION GROUPS

By

ROLAND JOSEPH SCOTT

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By

Roland Joseph Scott

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Chairman: James L. Wattenbarger
Major Department: Educational Administration

The purpose of this study was to test a theory suggested by previous studies that different socioeconomic groups have different media use patterns and different levels of information about occupational education. A second purpose was to test a hypothesis that levels of information about occupational education could be raised by channeling information to target population groups through appropriate media. Other purposes of the study were to develop a model for determining occupational education information levels and media use patterns of population subgroups in the service area of a Florida community college; to design and implement an information campaign to raise levels of information about occupational education using media deemed appropriate from the media use survey; and to measure and evaluate the effectiveness of the information campaign.

In order to determine the occupational education information levels and media use patterns of income/racial groups and to test the theory that different socioeconomic groups have different media use patterns and different levels of information about occupational education, a preassessment survey was conducted in the service area of the community college (N = 1,034).

To test the hypothesis that levels of information about occupational education could be raised by channeling information to target population groups through appropriate media, an information campaign was conducted utilizing media used most by low-income blacks and low-income whites--the target population groups.

In order to measure and evaluate the effectiveness of the information campaign, a postassessment survey (N = 1,008) was conducted to determine change in levels of information and the respondents' sources of information about occupational education.

Both preassessment and postassessment surveys used telephone interviews with persons selected in separate 5 per cent systematic samples from telephone directories covering the college's service area. Relatively high response rates were realized on both surveys--85.9 per cent of

persons contacted in the preassessment survey and 86.5 per cent in the postassessment survey.

Results of the preassessment survey indicated that levels of information about occupational education were extremely low, and persons in lower status groups--those most likely to benefit from occupational education courses--had less information than other groups. The study supported the theory that different socioeconomic groups have different media use patterns and different levels of information about occupational education.

Analysis of study results revealed that significant (at the .05 level) gains in information levels occurred for both low-income white and low-income black groups. Thus, this study supports the hypothesis that levels of information about occupational education could be raised by channeling information to target groups through appropriate media.

Based on results, newspapers and radio appeared to be the most promising media to raise levels of occupational education information in that community college's service area.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

After conducting a statewide survey of Florida residents, Dobson and Edwards (1971:88) reported that the general adult population in Florida had not acquired a base of knowledge about occupational education:

> It was true on every variable analyzed in this section that far more than a majority of our sample failed to pass even the most basic test regarding information about vocational education.

The Dobson and Edwards survey further revealed that persons in lower status groups--those most likely to benefit from occupational education--had significantly less information about occupational education than other groups.

In discussing standard public relations methods used by higher education institutions, Marston (1963:104) was critical:

> All too often educators bask in the delusion that they are communicating with important publics when, in fact, they are only talking to other educators. . . .

Marston said effective public relations approaches

might include "greater concentration upon the specific publics of which the general public of higher education is composed. . . ."

Writing about Medicare program information, Stojanovic (1972:253) discussed what she called an "ideal" approach for disseminating program information:

> With respect to Medicare as well as other programs, it would be ideal if information could be sent through the channels most likely to be used by those for whom particular programs are designed, so that the least effort and expense will be wasted and the largest returns gained. . . .The identification of the social and demographic characteristics of the users of certain media would be a step in the direction of facilitating planning for the transmission of specific messages to particular publics.

This study applied the approach discussed by Stojanovic to occupational education. Methods were developed and implemented to convey essential information about occupational education programs in order to serve individuals who could profit by enrolling in those programs.

The Problem

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to test a theory suggested by previous studies that different socioeconomic groups have

different media use patterns and different levels of information about occupational education. A second purpose was to test a hypothesis that levels of information about occupational education could be raised by channeling information to target population groups through appropriate media.

A third purpose of the study was to develop a model for determining occupational education information levels and media use patterns of population subgroups (population segments). The information levels were used to determine which population subgroups should be targets for an information campaign on occupational education. Further, the media use patterns indicated which media should be used in disseminating the information.

A fourth purpose of the study was to measure and evaluate the effectiveness of various media materials conveying information about occupational education programs in changing levels of information held by defined target population groups. Specifically, this study was to provide answers to the following questions:

1. What are the levels of information held by population subgroups concerning occupational education programs?

2. What existing media are most appropriate for conveying occupational education program information to target

population groups? (The "most appropriate media" were considered to be those used most heavily by the specific target population groups. The relationship of relative costs also was considered in making the decision on the "most appropriate media.")

3. Does occupational education program information conveyed to target population groups via appropriate media raise the levels of information held by those groups?

Justification for the Study

The Dobson and Edwards survey (1971) pointed out a need for the study. This need was emphasized by their finding that different population subgroups had significantly different amounts of information about occupational education, with no group having "basic" information.

In order to fulfill the goal of providing the unemployed entry-level skills necessary for existing jobs and to provide a ladder for promotion and advancement for the employed, essential information about programs, opportunities, admissions, etc., must be communicated to target population groups. The lack of success in serving certain population subgroups may be due, in part, to the problem of conveying such information. This study offered a method for disseminating important program information.

Assumptions

The design used in the study was a separate sample pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design. According to Campbell and Stanley (1963), this research design has no inherent threats to external validity; however, internal validity is potentially threatened by history, maturation, instrumentation, mortality, and the interaction of selection and maturation. The only one of these rival hypotheses that appeared to be applicable to this study was history.

It was assumed that history would not be a reasonable rival hypothesis in the study. Media serving the population studied were monitored to determine if any events occurred or occupational education information was released that would interfere with the treatment effect; no such events occurred, and no interfering information was released.

Definition of Terms

Media Materials--These are production-ready advertisement or public relations copy and/or visual materials for newspaper, radio, television, or movie publication.

Occupational Education--For the purpose of this study, occupational education refers to postsecondary educational

programs designed to provide educational and skill development experiences to prepare persons for entry, promotion, or updating in technical or semi-professional occupations in business, trade and industry, health, home economics, agriculture, and other special areas.

This definition is based on several definitions given in recent contributions to the occupational education literature. It borrows heavily from one provided by Bartlett and Childers (1971:36). They define "occupational education programs" as:

> A sequence of educational and skill development experiences designed to prepare an individual for entry, promotion, or updating in a specific occupation or cluster of occupations of less than professional level in business, trade and industry, health, home economics, agriculture and other special areas. These programs are normally two years or less in duration and lead to an associate degree, diploma, or certificate and immediate employment.

The definition of "occupational education" adopted for this study also is based on two others: (Thornton, 1966: 175-196; and "Occupational Education and Black Students," 1971:76-77).

Thornton said the term "occupational education" is used to denote "all organized junior college programs of study, of whatever length, that combine appropriate proportions of

technical, manipulative, general, and elective courses to prepare the student for employment upon the successful completion of the course."

In the second definition ("Occupational Education and Black Students," 1971:76-77), the term "occupational education" is used to refer to "post-high school programs that prepare men and women for technical and semi-professional jobs in government, private industry, business, and health fields."

Population Subgroup--This is a segment of the population under study. Social and demographic characteristics of the population group were identified, yielding various population subgroups.

Target Population Group--This is an aggregate of racial and income subgroups which the preassessment survey revealed as having the lowest levels of information about occupational education.

Procedures

Study Design

The study was conducted on a pilot scale in the service area of Central Florida Community College, which is designated as a state Area Vocational-Technical School. The college,

located in Ocala, serves Marion, Citrus, and Levy counties.

As mentioned earlier, the study adhered to a separate sample pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design. The preassessment survey determined the following:

1. Levels of information held by the population about occupational education.

2. Demographic and social characteristics of respondents (occupation, educational level, age grouping, race, income, sex, and urban/nonurban residency).

3. Media use patterns of respondents.

Thus, the preassessment survey revealed which income/racial population subgroups had the lowest levels of information about occupational education. These subgroups were selected as targets for the treatment--a media information campaign aimed at increasing levels of information about occupational education.

Demographic information allowed determination of pertinent characteristics of population subgroups for the several levels of information.

The media use patterns suggested which media should be used in presenting the information.

The postassessment survey determined the following:

1. Change in levels of information.

2. Demographic and social characteristics of respondents.

3. Source of recently acquired information about occupational education.

Selection of the Sample

The preassessment sample was a 5 per cent systematic sample, beginning at randomly selected items drawn from telephone directories covering the service area of Central Florida Community College, except in the City of Ocala. A different, more representative sampling method was used in drawing the sample from the telephone directory for the City of Ocala. This was done to insure that major population income and racial subgroups were represented in the sample from Ocala, which is the largest and most heterogeneous city in the service area of Central Florida Community College. In drawing the Ocala sample, several Central Florida Community College administrators who were long-time residents of Ocala blocked out areas on a map of the City of Ocala. To assure that the sample would include adequate numbers of cases for both black and white races and low-income groups, those areas were blocked out which could be defined accurately as residential areas of five income and racial groups:

high-income white, middle-income white, low-income white, middle-income black, and low-income black. These income groupings were devised only for the purpose of sampling. After the city map was blocked out, a 1970 Census Tract Map of the City of Ocala was used to determine the number of households in Ocala (7,933). Then, using 5 per cent samples from the Ocala telephone directory, telephone listings were checked against the five income and racial residential areas; listings were drawn from the directory until 120 were taken from each of the five areas; listings that did not fit within those areas were not included in the sample. The 120 listings from each area included a 20 per cent allowance for respondent loss. Taking this allowance into consideration, the resultant sample of 600 listings approximated a 5 per cent sample of households in the City of Ocala.

After the sample was drawn, the preassessment questionnaires were administered by telephone in November and December, 1974, and January, 1975.

The postassessment sample was drawn from telephone directories covering the service area of Central Florida Community College. The same sampling methods were used as in the first sampling. However, the second sample was drawn beginning at randomly selected telephone directory

items that did not correspond with items selected in the preassessment survey sample; thus, the second sample did not contain any person included in the first sample.

The postassessment survey questionnaires were administered by telephone the last week of March, 1975.

In administering both the preassessment and postassessment questionnaires, the interviewers were instructed to talk with whoever answered the telephone provided that person was 16 years of age or older. Interviewers also were instructed to make up to three callbacks should the phone not be answered.

The Information Campaign

The media usage results revealed that the target population groups were extensive consumers of newspapers, television, radio, and to a much less extent, movies. Therefore, all four of these media were used in the information campaign which was conducted during March, 1975.

Because of the increasing need for educational institutions to hold down costs, the information campaign was planned as a low-cost public service announcement (PSA) and public relations venture; paid space or time in the various media was not used, except for a small advertisement placed in the

classified advertisement section of the Ocala Star-Banner; the media materials prepared for the information campaign were distributed to the channels used frequently by target groups with the materials to be run at the discretion of media officials.

The media materials were prepared and distributed as follows (see Appendix C for texts of these materials):

1. A 55-second-long commercially made voice-over color movie showing and discussing aspects of occupational education programs was filmed at Central Florida Community College; 16 mm and 35 mm prints were made from the film. A 16 mm print was taken to television station WESH in Daytona Beach in the middle of February, 1975.

2. The Springs, Ocala Twin, and Florida movie theaters (all owned by separate companies) in Ocala were contacted and requested to run a 35 mm print during their regular movie sequences. Officials of the Springs and Ocala Twin theaters refused because of their policies against showing any kind of advertisements other than their own film previews. The Florida Theater cooperated and showed the 55-second, 35 mm film for the last three weeks of March; the film was shown repeatedly each time a featured movie was shown, as part of the theater's regular movie cycle.

3. Photographs were taken of persons and actions connected with occupational education programs and given with cutlines to the editor of the Ocala Star-Banner. Four of them were used in the news columns (on March 6, 11, 12, and 16). Also, a five-line classified advertisement on occupational education programs was placed in the "Help Wanted" column of the Ocala Star-Banner and run for two weeks. The cutlines and the text of the classified advertisement are in Appendix C.

4. The last week of February, 1975, 30-second-long reel-to-reel audio tapes (the length commonly used by radio stations for public service announcements) on occupational education programs were delivered to radio stations WTMC and WMOP. The management at WTMC agreed to use the tapes as public service announcements whenever possible during March. The management of WMOP and WFUZ-FM (which is under the same ownership as WMOP) agreed to run the tapes as public service announcements seven times a day including during the 6:00-10:00 a.m. period which was requested, every day during March, 1975.

Instrumentation

The preassessment questionnaire was developed using the questionnaire from the Dobson and Edwards (1971) study as a base and drawing on questionnaires from media use studies reported in the literature. The preassessment questionnaire is included as Appendix A.

The postassessment questionnaire (see Appendix B) was developed drawing from the preassessment questionnaire. The difference between the questionnaires was that the questions on media use were not included in the postassessment questionnaire.

The "panel of experts" method was used to establish validity of the preassessment and postassessment questionnaires.

Data Collection

Data were collected through the use of telephone surveys because of two important advantages of that method of contact. According to Nunnery and Kimbrough (1971), major advantages of the telephone survey include a low refusal rate among persons successfully contacted (assuming the interviewers are capable), and the telephone survey is economical in terms of achieving completed interviews.

Kerlinger (1964:395-7) preferred the personal interview to the telephone interview or the mail questionnaire; however, his primary reason was that interview schedules resulted from "careful and laborious construction." According to Kerlinger, telephone surveys have the advantages of speed and low cost but suffer a defect in an inability to obtain detailed information with their use. Also, Kerlinger pointed out that when the telephone interviewer is unknown to the respondent, telephone interviews are limited by possible nonresponse, uncooperativeness, and by the reluctance of subjects to answer more than simple, superficial questions.

Travers (1969:199-200) criticized the direct mail questionnaire because the percentage of returns tends to be small, only about 20 per cent "even when conditions are favorable." Also, there is likely to be a bias in returns with mail questionnaires because persons who return them tend to be more educated than persons who do not return them. Many of the advantages of the interview listed by Travers (1969:133) appear to be applicable to telephone interviews as well as personal interviews. These advantages are: Incompleteness of returns is rarely found in interviews as it is in mailed questionnaires; an interviewer is able to answer questions concerning the purpose of the interview, putting

the interviewee at ease in a way not possible with mailed questionnaires; interviews do not present the difficulties to persons of limited literacy that mailed questionnaires do; and an interviewer can conduct an interview at a proper speed whereas mailed questionnaires often are filled out hurriedly.

In order to determine coverage of the telephone samples and, therefore, the extent of generalizability among the population, a door-to-door survey was conducted to learn the percentage of people with telephones. The door-to-door survey was conducted in the low-income black area of Ocala because previous research (Dobson and Edwards, 1971) indicated that persons most likely to benefit from occupational education--those in lower status groups--had significantly less information than other groups. In the door-to-door survey, the interviewer contacted members of 157 households in the low-income black area of Ocala and found that 150 (95.5%) of the households had telephones.

Executives of the two telephone corporations (Florida Telephone Corporation and Southern Bell Telephone Corporation) serving households in the Central Florida Community College service area were contacted to determine telephone coverage throughout the service area. Information given by the

telephone company executives indicated that approximately 80 per cent of the households in the service area of the college had telephones.

Thus, for all practical purposes, the scope of households with telephones was sufficiently large to merit limiting generalizability of the results of this study to members of households with telephones.

Data Treatment

The data collected were keypunched and analysis performed by the computer program Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Nie, Bent, and Hull, 1970). Preassessment and postassessment responses were compared for each population subgroup to determine change in information levels. Media to which respondents attributed their information sources were tabulated for each population subgroup in order to evaluate the media's effectiveness in communicating information.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH AND LITERATURE

Information Levels

Dobson and Edwards (1971) reported on a 1971 statewide survey of Florida residents; the study aimed at assessing levels of information about and perceptions of vocational, technical, and adult education in Florida. The study was an attempt to determine how much information Florida residents possessed about the content of vocational education advertising, about opportunities for vocational education in the areas where they lived and in Florida generally, and the ability of the respondents to name youth organizations concerned with vocational education.

Those information variables were studied in relation to several independent variables: whether or not the respondent had taken part in a vocational education program; where he had seen or heard advertising about vocational education; sex; age; race; occupation; education; and income.

Results of the Dobson and Edwards study included: Only

28 per cent of the 898 respondents said they had seen or heard advertising about vocational education and were able to recall anything that was stressed in the advertising; 43 per cent (386) of the respondents were able to answer when they were asked to name some specific opportunities for vocational education in their area, but 112 of these respondents were able only to give some kind of program (i.e., "You can learn to be a mechanic.") without any reference as to where or how a person might take such a program; only 24 per cent of respondents who said there were opportunities for vocational education in Florida were able to give any response at all to the question of what these opportunities might be; and only 16.4 per cent of the total sample said they had heard of youth organizations concerned with vocational education and were correctly able to name at least one.

The primary findings of the Dobson and Edwards study were that levels of specific information about vocational opportunities were extremely low, and persons in lower status groups were less informed than persons in higher status groups.

Stating that it is well established that the blue-collar worker is less likely than the white-collar worker to

participate in adult education, London and Wenkert (1964) identified obstacles that inhibit greater participation by blue-collar workers in adult education. These obstacles are of two types: (1) myths about the nature of blue-collar life, about the learning process, about the blue-collar worker's interest in education, etc.; and (2) obstacles inherent in the social conditions of the blue-collar world.

Obstacles of the second type were identified in an empirical study concerned with the relations between social class and adult education, and conducted in Oakland, California. The sample consisted of men between the ages of 20 and 60. Results revealed that a major obstacle was a lack of information about adult education possessed by blue-collar workers, particularly the unskilled and the semiskilled.

Sources of Information

Research on sources of information to which students attribute their knowledge of educational courses or programs indicates that personal sources are extremely important, but mass media also are notable sources of such information.

The London and Wenkert (1964) study discussed above also examined how blue-collar workers already participating

in adult education learned about their courses. They found that personal sources (friends, neighbors, and acquaintances) were a major source of such course information for the unskilled and semiskilled blue-collar workers. The skilled blue-collar, lower white-collar, professional, and managerial respondents relied much more frequently on the mass media, employers, supervisors, or being on a mailing list and receiving an announcement by mail.

Other findings of London and Wenkert were that men tend to participate in adult education with their friends, but the blue-collar worker is less likely than the white-collar worker to have friends or acquaintances who are enrolled in adult education courses. Thus, the blue-collar worker is less likely than the white-collar worker to have a source of information about adult education.

Wanty (1969) studied sources which community college students considered important as channels of news about their college. He also found that personal sources were important. Approximately one third of the students sampled (1,000 students at a metropolitan community college) rated student conversation second as a source of college news; however, the student newspaper was the top choice, with 51 per cent of the students naming it as their main source. Although a

majority of the students reported spending part of each day as consumers of commercial media (newspapers, radio, and television), only 10 per cent relied on commercial media as their main source of news about the college.

The Wanty study compared administrators' identification of campus news sources with the sources ranked by the students. Several sources which the administrators considered important (monthly talks by the college president and the college's radio station) were not cited by students as important sources; only 1.3 per cent considered the president's talks as important sources, and less than 1 per cent ranked college radio as an important source.

A student profile study conducted by the Virginia Department of Community Colleges (1975) determined the sources of information about Virginia community college programs as cited by all occupational-technical students enrolled for the first time in the Virginia Community College System in Summer and Fall, 1974-75. Of the 3,535 occupational-technical students who responded, 1,266 (36%) said friends were their sources of information, 933 (26%) said college publications, and 614 (17%) said they learned about the community college programs in high school. Also, 335 (9%) said parents or relatives were their sources, 188 (5%)

said sources other than the response categories provided, 131 (4%) said the newspaper, and 68 (2%) said radio or television. Thus, in the Virginia Department of Community Colleges study, mass media appeared to have been the least important sources of information for those occupational-technical students.

Krejcie (1968) surveyed 79 junior colleges in a national sample to determine practices and media used by junior colleges to promote enrollment, practices and media that succeeded in inducing students to enroll in technician programs, and the relationships between effective and ineffective practices and media. Results of the Krejcie study included: Counselors and teachers had a relatively high influence on students' decisions to enroll; radio and television announcements were not used extensively and did not exert major influence on the enrollment decisions; print media appeared to have had more influence than picture media; college catalogs and program descriptions were the most used and most influential print media; 3 per cent of the students were influenced by advertisements in college newspapers; and descriptions of employment and career opportunities were influential whatever their source.

Information Campaigns

Salcedo, Read, Evans, and Kong (1974:91) stated that relatively few information campaigns have been evaluated and when systematic tests of the effectiveness of information campaigns have been conducted, "the results have been discouraging to the campaigners."

Budd and Strayton (1969:19) stated that the typical evidence gathered to prove the worth of public relations (i.e., newspaper and magazine clippings) is "puny documentation of the worth of a major investment such as public relations." However, the discussion by Budd and Strayton on the uses of the computer in public relations indicates that even the use of the computer has focused on such documentation.

Cunningham (1962) pointed out that provision must be made for measuring results of public relations programs in order to determine if all pertinent audiences are reached by the information campaign.

Salcedo et al. conducted a one-month (May 1-31, 1972) information campaign on pesticide safety; the campaign was run in Quincy, Illinois, to increase levels of knowledge about pesticide safety and to influence attitudes toward the

pesticide label and the safe use of pesticides. The campaign was entitled "Take A Look and Live" because previous research had indicated that pesticide users often do not read pesticide labels and, therefore, are not aware of potential dangers. The City of Decatur, Illinois, was the "control" community in the study; Quincy and Decatur were comparable in terms of mass media availability, age-sex composition, median education, and occupational composition of residents.

In the information campaign, a set of four one-minute television spots was produced and distributed to both television stations in Quincy; the spots were broadcast 80 times, or about three spots a day. A set of four one-minute radio spots was produced and distributed to all radio stations in Quincy; these were broadcast 142 times, or about five spots a day. Two news articles and five public service advertisements stating the message appeared in the Quincy daily newspaper. Also, four versions of a direct mail piece were sent to all heads of households (N = 16,000) in Quincy at one-week intervals.

Respondents were drawn from current city directories for each city and randomly divided into pretest and posttest respondent groups. In April, 1972, pretest interviews were conducted with 230 respondents in Quincy and 208 in Decatur.

In June, 1972, posttest interviews were conducted with 280 respondents in Quincy and 247 in Decatur.

Findings of the Salcedo et al. study showed that respondents' levels of knowledge increased in Quincy and their attitudes toward the pesticide label and the safe use of pesticides were strengthened. The information campaign was credited with these results. However, the findings revealed a relatively low audience exposure rate to the campaign; only 24 per cent of the posttest respondents from Quincy answered "yes" when asked if they remembered seeing or hearing the slogan "Take A Look and Live" during the month of May, 1972. Of those respondents who answered "yes," 39 per cent gave the radio as their source, 39 per cent said the mail piece, 36 per cent said television, 22 per cent said the newspaper, and 4 per cent said friends and group meetings were their sources of exposure to the slogan.

A much earlier experimental approach to conducting an information campaign was reported by Star and Hughes (1950). Although this campaign was a massive informational effort, it was far less successful than the study conducted by Salcedo et al. In September, 1947, the American Association for the United Nations and the United Nations Association of Cincinnati, in cooperation with the Stephen H. Wilder

Foundation of Cincinnati, conducted a six-month information campaign to make Cincinnati more informed about the United Nations. The National Opinion Research Center was engaged to conduct pretreatment and posttreatment surveys to determine the effectiveness of the information campaign.

The objective of the campaign was to reach every adult among the 1,155,703 residents of Cincinnati's retail trading zone. In an attempt to meet this objective, almost every conceivable method was used to convey the information. Among the information campaign activities were the following: 12,868 people were reached through the Parent-Teachers Associations which devoted programs to the topic of world understanding; every school child was given literature on the United Nations to take home; 14,000 children in the Weekday Church Schools held a World Community Day program; 150 leaders in the Cincinnati Council of Church Women took training courses in the arranging of United Nations programs; 10,000 members of the Catholic Parent-Teachers Association were exhorted by their archbishop to support the United Nations; the radio stations broadcast facts about the United Nations, one of them scheduling spot programs 150 times a week; the newspapers played up United Nations news and information throughout the six months; 59,588 pieces of

literature were distributed and 2,800 clubs were reached by speakers supplied by a speakers' bureau and by circular; hundreds of documentary films were shown; and the slogan "Peace Begins with the United Nations--the United Nations Begins with You" was exhibited practically everywhere, in every imaginable form (blotters, matchbooks, streetcar cards, etc.).

Results of the information campaign were analyzed according to changes in responses to the pretreatment and posttreatment surveys in respect to respondents' interest, information, and opinion concerning world affairs and the United Nations. The researchers then determined how much of the changes could be attributed to the information campaign. The conclusion was that the six months campaign did not alter the respondents' interest, level of information, or opinion very much.

Also, it was determined that the people reached by the campaign were those least in need of the information and that the people who were not reached were the audience primarily hoped for by the researchers. When the campaign was planned, the researchers had recommended that the campaign be particularly addressed to women, to the relatively uneducated, to the elderly, and to the poor--all groups which the pretreatment

survey had revealed to be most in need of such information. However, the posttreatment survey showed that the people who were reached by the campaign were the better educated, the younger people, and the men--people most likely to be interested in the issues of the campaign and, therefore, most likely to be informed about them. Thus, the information apparently did not stir the interest of people who were not already interested.

Findings of a study by Hesser (1973) also were disappointing. Hesser conducted an information campaign in 1969 in an attempt to create public interest in the Alachua County, Florida, juvenile court. She interviewed a panel of readers of the Gainesville Sun shortly before and after that newspaper published eight articles about the juvenile court. The interviews were conducted to determine the respondents' knowledge and attitudes about the juvenile court.

Results of the Hesser study revealed that few respondents had read the articles about the juvenile court; only 27.3 per cent had noticed the articles, 18.2 per cent had read at least one article, and 4.5 per cent had read two or more articles. No significant change occurred in respondents' information about the juvenile court between the pretreatment and posttreatment interviews.

Media Use

Numerous studies have been conducted on media use patterns and preferences of various population groups and subgroups.

The Dobson and Edwards (1971) study reported above also found that the single most frequently mentioned source of information about vocational education in Florida was television (34.8% of the respondents) followed by newspapers (22.8%). Radio was reported as a primary source of information by only 3.2 per cent of the respondents.

Anderson (1973) investigated differences in uses of mass media by urban and nonurban residents in Southeastern Ohio. He found that television was ranked highest as a media source of entertainment by both urban and nonurban respondents. Urban respondents generally favored television, first, and print media, second, for entertainment, news, and information. Nonurban respondents relied heavily on television for all three functions (entertainment, news, and information) but also favored radio as a source of entertainment and news.

Allen (1968) surveyed black ghetto residents in Pittsburgh to determine the use patterns and effects of mass media on the residents of a metropolitan black ghetto. The

study showed that these ghetto residents were almost entirely dependent on television for news and viewed television extensively for entertainment; they also spent a considerable amount of time listening to radio (an average of five-and-a-half hours a day).

Greenberg and Dervin (1970) studied mass media behaviors (media use, availability, content preferences, functions, and attitudes) of poor children, adolescents, and adults. Among the results was that members of low-income groups (especially blacks) watched television more than the general population.

Lyle (1967) conducted a study to determine the use of daily general and weekly black newspapers by blacks in Los Angeles and their attitudes toward those newspapers. Results indicated that all of the 165 black respondents interviewed read one daily newspaper at least occasionally. Respondents' use of other media also was investigated. Exposure to television and radio was high; 55 per cent of the subjects reported regular radio news listening, and 84 per cent regular viewing of television newscasts. Also, most respondents said they read a magazine regularly; only 10 per cent said they did not read any magazines. The median number of magazines read regularly was three.

Bogart (1968) studied the relationship of race with media use habits. He reported on an Opinion Research Corporation study which included 240 interviews with blacks out of a national sample of 1,991 adults. The results showed that the blacks received a flow of media similar to that of the whites, and that most racial differences in media exposure reflected social status and geographical differences rather than racial or cultural factors per se. The study revealed that media exposure patterns of blacks generally paralleled those of whites when income, educational, and regional comparisons were made. The Opinion Research Corporation study did show that blacks read slightly fewer newspapers than whites; the blacks also read far fewer magazines, listened to less radio, and watched television less than whites.

Bogart (1972) followed that study with a special analysis of data from a 1970 national study of media audiences. The 1970 study had a more recent and much larger national probability sample of 15,322 persons. After reviewing the results of the data analysis, Bogart (1972) revised his 1968 conclusion that "most of the differences in media exposure between Negroes and whites reflects differences in social position and geography rather than any self-conscious

alienation of Negroes as a group." Bogart (1972) said his earlier conclusion remained very true for newspaper reading and on the whole true for radio listening, but the 1970 data suggested that television plays a somewhat different role in the lives of blacks than of whites at similar levels of income and education.

Results of Bogart's analysis of the 1970 data showed that, in general, daily newspaper reading followed the same patterns when whites and blacks were compared, though the overall figures for blacks were lower. Of the white population, 80 per cent said they read a daily newspaper "yesterday," compared with 61 per cent of the black population. Among whites, men and women were identical in their rates of daily newspaper readership, but among blacks (especially in the lower educated level) women were more apt than men to be daily newspaper readers. There was virtually no newspaper readership difference by race among college graduates, but among those with high school education or less, the black readership was substantially below that of the whites. Similarly, at the poverty level (below a $5,000 family income), newspaper readership fell off sharply for blacks. Among high school graduates in big cities, the newspaper readership of blacks matched that of whites, but

readership dipped sharply among those blacks in nonmetropolitan areas who had not graduated from high school. Newspaper readership generally was lower in small towns and rural areas than in metropolitan centers, but the difference was much sharper among blacks. The effects of income, education, city size, and region of residence were interrelated and complementary.

Bogart's (1972) results on radio listenership were identical for black and white women, but black men listened 16 per cent more than white men. Among whites, radio listening was greatest among both men and women in the middle income bracket ($5,000 to $10,000), but among blacks it was heaviest among the few in the upper income level (over $10,000). Analysis by educational level showed that the greatest amount of radio listening among whites was for those in the middle educational level (high school graduates who had not attended college). Among black men the same pattern occurred, but among black women the heaviest radio listening was at the lowest educational level (less than high school graduate). Rural and Southern whites and blacks alike showed less radio listening time than people in other regions. Also, for both races radio listening was less among those over 50 years of age. Bogart concluded that the resemblances in

listening time seemed more significant than the deviations.

Television viewing results of Bogart's analysis of the 1970 data showed that women watched television more than men, especially in daytime and time other than prime time. Since men watch daytime television extensively on the weekends, the seven-day totals for television viewing were not as different for men and women as they were for the five days during the working week. In prime evening time, the television viewing of whites and blacks was very similar, with black viewership slightly less than that of whites. The blacks watched substantially more television outside of prime time than did whites. Black women spent 41 per cent more daytime and time other than prime time hours watching television than did white women. Among the white population, television viewing increased among older people for both prime time and other times. Among blacks, however, the older people were the lightest viewers, and young people (especially those between 18 and 24 years of age) were the heaviest viewers of prime time television.

The Bogart (1972) results also showed that differences in geography and climate influenced television viewing patterns. In the Southern states, with more temperate climate, prime time evening television viewing was less among

both blacks and whites than it was in the North and West. When income and education were taken into account, the difference between prime time and daytime viewing patterns also was apparent; for the white population, television viewing decreased as education and income increased; however, upper income blacks watched more television than those lower on the income scale, and women in the upper income bracket accounted for the difference. Women in the upper bracket also were the heaviest daytime and other than prime time viewers, while middle income black men watched more television at these times than did black men of higher or lower incomes.

Meyersohn (1968) studied the differences that various kinds of leisure activities make on the rate of television viewing. Data for the study were drawn from a national sample done in 1961 by Elmo Roper and the National Research Center. Among the results were that the poor read fewer newspapers or books, attended fewer movies, but watched more television than the more affluent.

Sargent and Stempel (1968) studied the relationship of poverty and alienation with media use, interviewing respondents from families on relief in Athens, Ohio, and other subjects from the general population of that city. Findings on the relationship of poverty to mass media use revealed

that the relief subjects used the newspaper less, listened to the radio more, and watched television more than subjects from the general population. The daily newspaper was read 20 minutes or more by 67 per cent of the relief subjects as compared with 75 per cent of the general population subjects; 49 per cent of the relief subjects listened to the radio two or more hours daily compared to 34 per cent of subjects from the general population; and 51 per cent of the relief subjects watched television five hours or more daily compared to 20 per cent of general population subjects.

The above studies suggest that television and radio would be prime channels for distributing information to low-income groups. However, another study (Stojanovic, 1972) found otherwise. Stojanovic determined sources from which rural low-income women in the Southeastern United States (Alabama, Mississippi, North Carolina, and Tennessee) had heard about Medicare. The popularity of television and radio again was established. However, the results also showed that persons of extremely low socioeconomic status were least likely to have been reached by radio and television.

Lazarsfeld (1940:xii) reported on an early study comparing print media with "a newly developed instrument, radio." The research resulted from a 1937 grant from The

Rockefeller Foundation to Princeton University to study the role played by radio for different groups of listeners in the United States. Results showed that radio listening correlated with socioeconomic level--the amount of radio listening increased at the lower socioeconomic levels. Also, findings indicated that if people had a choice between radio and print media for fairly comparable subject matter, the higher their socioeconomic level the more likely they would prefer to read rather than listen.

After surveying low-income persons in St. Louis, Block (1970) found that television and newspapers were the most effective modes of communication for reaching the urban poor.

Murdoff (1967) surveyed householders in Napa, California, to determine what community members understood about the local junior college and its functions. The results revealed that the newspaper was the best single source of information for all groups surveyed.

In studying social class and ethnic differences relative to readership of a War on Poverty newsletter, Williams and Lindsay (1971) found that media use habits and attitudes varied far more as a function of social stratification than of respondent ethnicity.

Bogart (1964) reviewed and discussed findings from

various studies relating to media use by blue-collar workers. He pointed out that media coverage is extremely broad in the United States; and thus media use patterns are generally related to sex, ethnic, age, avocational, or occupational groupings which may be only indirectly related to social class. Bogart also stated that many studies have supported the observation that people of lower income and education were oriented to the "easier to absorb" broadcast media, while those of higher income and education gravitated toward print media. Other results mentioned include: People with less education look to television for entertainment rather than information; and daily newspaper reading among blue-collar workers is almost as universal as in the population as a whole, but regularity of newspaper reading increases with education.

Parker and Paisley (1966) studied information-seeking behavior of adults to determine what kinds of people seek what kinds of information through what channels. Interviews were conducted with a total of 1,869 adults in San Mateo and Fresno, California. Responses were tabulated by age, sex, education, occupation, income, and length of community residence. Results revealed that the ways information sources were used varied with educational background, occupation, and

the kinds of information sought.

Among the findings of the Parker and Paisley study were data on the subjects' use of television, radio, newspapers, and magazines for information.

The results on television usage included: Education was found to be the most potent determinant of television viewing; college-educated adults consistently watched less television than less educated subjects. Sex, age, and education were simultaneous determinants of television usage; women under 40 with only a high school education or less watched television more than men in the same age and education levels; there was a slight decrease in volume of television viewing with age for women at the high school level.

When education was held constant, television use varied at different occupational levels (except that unemployed adults watched television more than the employed). Higher income subjects were found more frequently in the lower television usage categories; this was particularly true in the over $15,000 income group in which 64 per cent used television less than an hour-and-a-half a day, as compared with less than 50 per cent in the lower income groups. Also, when education was held constant the relationship between income and television viewing time was strongly negative in

the low education group and slightly positive in the high education group.

Findings on radio use indicated that radio usage declined with the subjects' age, but older subjects were more likely than younger respondents to use radio for informational rather than entertainment purposes. Education was found to have little effect on the amount of radio usage; college graduates and adults with less than a high school education spent about the same amount of time listening to the radio. Data on the relationship of occupation and income with radio usage showed that white-collar workers with annual incomes of $7,000 to $9,999 had the highest rate of radio usage.

The Parker and Paisley study results on newspaper use patterns of respondents showed that newspaper usage increased a small amount with age of respondents and was greater with subjects who had a college education when age was held constant. When education was controlled, occupation had a direct relationship with newspaper usage; the volume of newspaper reading increased with occupational status. The unemployed had different newspaper use patterns; an average of 95 per cent of the unemployed were women, and the newspaper usage of these women was higher for those with a college

education than for those with a high school education.

Results on magazine use of respondents in the Parker and Paisley study showed that magazine reading volume increased with age for college-educated men, but the authors attributed this more to occupation of respondents than to age. Overall, there was much greater magazine reading by adults with college education than for those with only a high school education or less. Also, when education was controlled, there was a steady increase in magazine usage as occupational status and income level increased.

In a national study conducted primarily to determine the attitudes and feelings of Americans toward television and its content, Steiner (1963) compared the use of television with the use of radio, magazines, and newspapers. He found that the level of education of the respondent was the factor that made the greatest difference in the relative capacities and limitations attributed to the four media by the respondent. Where differences did exist according to such other characteristics as age, sex, family composition, urban-rural residency, and income, they were less pronounced and were always in a direction consistent with educational differences among groups. As education increased, respondents turned from television to newspapers or magazines for "intelligent,"

"educational" material. However, all educational levels found television to be the "most entertaining" of the four media studied.

Rees and Paisley (1967) studied 25 media and information-seeking behaviors, using data from a study in Fresno, California. Results showed that income and education were strong predictors of newspaper use; newspaper reading doubled from low to high income levels; and the more education, the higher the percentage who read newspapers.

McLeod, Ward, and Tancill (1965-66) explored the relationship of alienation to mass media usage in a study conducted in Madison, Wisconsin. The results revealed little evidence that the alienated (alienation was defined as a rejection of social institutions and processes) spend more time with mass media than does the general public. Findings indicated that the best predictor of media use was education, not alienation. Using education as a measure of mass media use, there was a positive correlation with print media usage and a negative correlation with electronic media usage. Also, the more education a person had the more apt he was to use mass media for information reasons rather than for vicarious reasons.

Wade and Schramm (1969) studied the relation of

different patterns of information-seeking to different levels of public knowledge in three areas--public affairs, science, and health. Data for the study came from secondary analysis of national sample surveys conducted between 1952 and 1964. Among the results was that education was found to be a powerful predictor of mass media use; the more education a person had, the more likely he was to use print media as his major source of news and information.

Greenberg (1966) investigated the relationship of age, sex, and education with mass media credibility and usage. Only television and newspapers were compared. Results showed that the relationship between education and mass media usage was stronger than the relationship between education and mass media credibility. Findings also revealed that age alone was not a determinant of mass media usage; however, there was a strong correlation between age, education level, and mass media usage. Younger subjects with 12 years of education or less used television extensively, but respondents with a college degree used television much less. The heavy user of television tended to be the less educated, and this group had one-fifth more women than men. The heavy user of newspapers tended to be older men with a college education; this group had one-eighth more men than women.

Lazarsfeld and Kendall (1948) reported on a study on the public's attitudes toward radio. The study, conducted in 1947 by the National Opinion Research Center, also examined the general communications behavior of the American population. Results included: 90 per cent of the respondents said they read a daily newspaper; 61 per cent had attended movies the month previous to their interview; 74 per cent said they listened to the radio one or more hours on an average weekday evening; 26 per cent read at least one book during the month; and 61 per cent read at least one magazine regularly.

Also among the Lazarsfeld and Kendall results was that 86 per cent of college-educated respondents read magazines regularly as compared with 68 per cent of the high school-educated respondents; 50 per cent of the college-educated read at least one book in the month previous to their interview as compared with 27 per cent of the respondents with only a high school education; 21 per cent of the college-educated listened to the radio three or more hours an evening as compared with 29 per cent of the high school-educated; and 25 per cent of the college-educated and 28 per cent of the high school-educated saw four or more movies in the month previous to their interview.

Another Lazarsfeld and Kendall finding was a strong relationship between age and movie attendance; a higher proportion of older respondents did not attend movies (73% of respondents over the age of 60 and 19% of respondents between the ages of 21 and 29 reported they did not attend movies).

Case studies conducted by MacLean (1952) suggest that a number of factors may be important to variations in communications behavior in different types of communities (city, small city, village, and farm). In this study, results indicated that persons with a high school level of education were the strongest radio fans; also, women listened to radio much more than men. How many magazines a person read clearly was related to his income, occupation, education, and levels of social activity. The proportion of people attending to all five media in MacLean's studies--newspapers, radio, magazines, movies, and books--decreased consistently from metropolis through small city and village to the farms. Samuelson, Carter, and Ruggels (1963) also found that radio use was at a peak with persons who were at the high school graduate level of education, as did MacLean.

Conclusions from Review of Related Research and Literature

It is obvious from the studies on information levels that methods for disseminating occupational education information have had little success. Both the Dobson and Edwards (1971) study and the London and Wenkert (1964) study revealed that not only have levels of information about occupational education been found to be extremely low, but individuals most in need of such information--persons in lower status groups such as unskilled and semiskilled blue-collar workers--are least likely to have information essential for enrolling in occupational programs.

Research on media preference and use patterns indicates that such patterns can vary according to such factors as urban or nonurban residency, types of community of residence, geography and climate, social stratification, education, income, race, occupation, age, and sex. Thus, media use patterns cannot be generalized easily from one population to another.

The studies on media use patterns and information levels of respondents imply a theory that different socioeconomic groups have different media use patterns and different levels of information about occupational education.

The studies by Lazarsfeld (1940), Lazarsfeld and Kendall (1948), and MacLean (1952) indicate that the construct "different population subgroups have different media use patterns" is stable over time. This emphasizes the importance of determining media use patterns of information campaign target population groups before disseminating information to those groups.

From the review of research and literature, it was apparent that an approach was needed that determined the information sources of those population subgroups having the lowest levels of information about occupational education. Media use patterns should be determined in each area before disseminating information materials on occupational education programs. Knowing which media are used predominantly by population subgroups will indicate the appropriate media to be used as channels for communicating information to those groups.

The review of related studies revealed that previous research has focused on either determining the information held by population subgroups about occupational education, the information sources of students enrolled in educational programs, or the media use patterns of population subgroups. However, this study determined both information levels and

media use patterns of population subgroups in order to learn which media should be used for channeling occupational education information to those subgroups having low levels of information.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Response Rate to Telephone Surveys

Relatively high response rates were realized on the telephone surveys. This was in line with the Nunnery and Kimbrough (1971) statement that telephone surveys yield low refusal rates among persons contacted.

The drawn cases for the preassessment survey consisted of 1,917 telephone listings. Of this number, 1,204 (62.8%) persons were successfully contacted; the remaining 713 were not contacted due to disconnected numbers or no answers. Of the 1,204 persons contacted, only 170 (14.1%) refused to cooperate. Thus, the cooperating 1,034 persons comprised a response rate of 85.9 per cent.

The drawn cases for the postassessment survey consisted of 1,915 telephone listings. Of this number, 1,165 (60.8%) persons were successfully contacted; the remaining 750 were not contacted due to disconnected numbers or no answers. Of the 1,165 respondents contacted, 157 (13.5%) refused to

cooperate. Thus, the 1,008 cooperating persons comprised a response rate of 86.5 per cent.

Target Groups and Their Media Use

This study was intended as a model for identifying target groups to be the recipients of information about occupational education programs and for determining if the information levels of target groups could be raised. The model entails the identification of information needs of population subgroups as identifiable by demographic characteristics of citizens in an institution's service area. Because the literature has frequently used income and racial groups as population subgroups for study, the target groups in this study were defined in terms of these characteristics. Specifically, the target groups of study were "low-income black" and "low-income white." Although the high-income black and high-income white categories were not considered to be target groups, data on them were available and, therefore, they were included in the study to determine if they also showed change in levels of information. A dividing line of $7,000 a year was used to separate the categories of "high" and "low" incomes because about half of the cases in both surveys fell below that figure and half fell above

it. Thus, "high income" refers to an annual family income of $7,000 or more, and "low income" refers to an annual family income of below $7,000.

The distributions of respondents in both surveys are shown in Table 1. The table shows that 107 (10.3%) of the preassessment respondents were low-income blacks, and 381 (36.8%) were low-income whites; 125 (12.4%) of the post-assessment respondents were low-income blacks, and 395 (39.2%) were low-income whites. The percentages in the income/racial group categories were similar for both the preassessment and postassessment surveys.

In order to determine what existing media would be most appropriate for conveying occupational education program information to target population groups, data on media use were collected and categorized according to income/racial groups. The most appropriate media were those used most by the target population groups.

Television Usage

The crosstabulation of income/racial groups by the time respondents said they spent daily watching television is shown in Table 2. According to that table, 43.0 per cent of low-income blacks and 34.6 per cent of low-income whites

Table 1

Income/Racial Groups of Preassessment and Postassessment Respondents

Group	Preassessment		Postassessment	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency %	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency %
Low-Income Black	107	10.3	125	12.4
Low-Income White	381	36.8	395	39.2
High-Income Black	50	4.8	41	4.1
High-Income White	465	45.0	429	42.6
Missing	31	3.0	18	1.8
Total	1,034	100.0	1,008	100.0

Table 2

Income/Racial Groups of Preassessment Respondents
by Time Spent Watching Television Daily

Group	Count Row % Col % Tot %	Less Than One Hour	One Hour	Two Hours	Three Hours	Four or More Hours	None	No Response	Row Total
Low-Income		5	6	23	15	46	9	3	107
Black		4.7	5.6	21.5	14.0	43.0	8.4	2.8	10.7
		7.6	6.7	10.1	7.7	13.5	17.6	10.0	
		.5	.6	2.3	1.5	4.6	.9	.3	
Low-Income		27	34	82	74	132	18	14	381
White		7.1	8.9	21.5	19.4	34.6	4.7	3.7	38.1
		40.9	38.2	36.0	37.8	38.7	35.3	46.7	
		2.7	3.4	8.2	7.4	13.2	1.8	1.4	
High-Income		3	4	9	12	17	1	4	50
Black		6.0	8.0	18.0	24.0	34.0	2.0	8.0	5.0
		4.5	4.5	3.9	6.1	5.0	2.0	13.3	
		.3	.4	.9	1.2	1.7	.1	.4	
High-Income		31	45	114	95	146	23	9	463
White		6.7	9.7	24.6	20.5	31.5	5.0	1.9	46.3
		47.0	50.6	50.0	48.5	42.8	45.1	30.0	
		3.1	4.5	11.4	9.5	14.6	2.3	.9	
	Column	66	89	228	196	341	51	30	1001
	Total	6.6	8.9	22.8	19.6	34.1	5.1	3.0	100.0

Number of Missing Observations = 33

said they watched television four or more hours a day. Also, Table 2 revealed that 88.8 per cent of low-income blacks and 91.5 per cent of low-income whites indicated they viewed at least some television daily.

These television viewing patterns of low-income groups agree with results of previous media use research, particularly studies by Allen (1968) and by Greenberg and Dervin (1970). Allen found that black ghetto residents in Pittsburgh viewed television extensively, and Greenberg and Dervin found that low-income groups, particularly blacks, devoted considerable time to television viewing.

The crosstabulation of income/racial groups by time of day respondents watch television most is shown in Table 3. In all income/racial categories, the majority of respondents who indicated they were television viewers said they watched television most during the 6:00-10:00 p.m. period.

Table 4 presents data on the preferred television channels of those respondents who indicated they watched television. The table reveals a strong preference for WESH, Channel 2, in Daytona Beach, Florida; 72.0 per cent of the low-income blacks and 47.7 per cent of the low-income whites said they preferred WESH. One reason for the high preference for WESH, according to respondents, is that many

Table 3

Income/Racial Groups of Preassessment Respondents
by Time of Day Watch Television Most

Group	Count / Row % / Col % / Tot %	6 a.m. to 10 a.m.	10 a.m. to 2 p.m.	2 p.m. to 6 p.m.	6 p.m. to 10 p.m.	10 p.m. to 2 a.m.	All Day	All Evening	Row Total
Low-Income		4	4	11	60	1	9	1	90
Black		4.4	4.4	12.2	66.7	1.1	10.0	1.1	10.4
		13.3	11.4	14.1	9.4	20.0	15.5	4.2	
		.5	.5	1.3	6.9	.1	1.0	.1	
Low-Income		11	16	38	227	1	21	9	323
White		3.4	5.0	11.8	70.3	.3	6.5	2.8	37.3
		36.7	45.7	48.7	35.6	20.0	36.2	37.5	
		1.3	1.8	4.4	26.2	.1	2.4	1.0	
High-Income		0	0	4	35	0	5	2	46
Black		.0	.0	8.7	76.1	.0	10.9	4.3	5.3
		.0	.0	5.1	5.5	.0	8.6	8.3	
		.0	.0	.5	4.0	.0	.6	.2	
High-Income		15	15	25	315	3	23	12	408
White		3.7	3.7	6.1	77.2	.7	5.6	2.9	47.1
		50.0	42.9	32.1	49.5	60.0	39.7	50.0	
		1.7	1.7	2.9	36.3	.3	2.7	1.4	
	Column	30	35	78	637	5	58	24	867
	Total	3.5	4.0	9.0	73.5	.6	6.7	2.8	100.0

Number of Missing Observations = 167

Table 4

Income/Racial Groups of Preassessment Respondents
by Preferred Television Channel

Group	Count / Row % / Col % / Tot %	WESH	WFTV	WTLV	WDBO	WJXT	WJKS	WUFT	WLCY	WCJB	WFLA	WEDU	Row Total
Low-Income		59	4	2	5	1	0	1	4	6	0	0	82
Black		72.0	4.9	2.4	6.1	1.2	.0	1.2	4.9	7.3	.0	.0	11.9
		14.5	16.0	40.0	11.9	8.3	.0	6.7	8.3	18.2	.0	.0	
		8.5	.6	.3	.7	.1	.0	.1	.6	.9	.0	.0	
Low-Income		122	7	1	18	5	31	5	21	17	24	5	256
White		47.7	2.7	.4	7.0	2.0	12.1	2.0	8.2	6.6	9.4	2.0	37.0
		30.0	28.0	20.0	42.9	41.7	60.8	33.3	43.8	51.5	57.1	45.5	
		17.7	1.0	.1	2.6	.7	4.5	.7	3.0	2.5	3.5	.7	
High-Income		34	2	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	40
Black		85.0	5.0	.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	.0	.0	2.5	.0	.0	5.8
		8.4	8.0	.0	2.4	8.3	2.0	.0	.0	3.0	.0	.0	
		4.9	.3	.0	.1	.1	.1	.0	.0	.1	.0	.0	
High-Income		192	12	2	18	5	19	9	23	9	18	6	313
White		61.3	3.8	.6	5.8	1.6	6.1	2.9	7.3	2.9	5.8	1.9	45.3
		47.2	48.0	40.0	42.9	41.7	37.3	60.0	47.9	27.3	42.9	54.5	
		27.8	1.7	.3	2.6	.7	2.7	1.3	3.3	1.3	2.6	1.0	
	Column	407	25	5	42	12	51	15	48	33	42	11	691
	Total	58.9	3.6	.7	6.1	1.7	7.4	2.2	6.9	4.8	6.1	1.7	100.0

Number of Missing Observations = 343

residents of this area receive the best video and audio signals on this channel. In addition to WESH, the television stations mentioned by respondents were: WFTV, Channel 9, Orlando; WTLV, Channel 12, Jacksonville; WDBO, Channel 6, Orlando; WJXT, Channel 4, Jacksonville; WJKS, Channel 17, Jacksonville; WUFT, Channel 5, Gainesville; WLCY, Channel 10, Largo; WCJB, Channel 20, Gainesville; WFLA, Channel 8, Tampa; and WEDU, Channel 3, Tampa.

Radio Usage

The crosstabulation of income/racial groups with the time respondents spent daily listening to the radio is shown in Table 5. It can be observed from this table that 62.6 per cent of the low-income blacks and 61.1 per cent of the low-income whites listened to the radio daily. Further, 54.2 per cent of the low-income blacks and 46.9 per cent of the low-income whites listened to radio at least one hour or more daily.

These findings on radio listenership suggested less radio usage by low-income blacks than reported in the study by Allen (1968). Allen found that black ghetto residents in Pittsburgh spent an average of five-and-a-half hours a day listening to radio. However, Table 5 shows that only

Table 5

Income/Racial Groups of Preassessment Respondents
by Time Spent Daily Listening to Radio

Group	Count / Row % / Col % / Tot %	Less Than One Hour	One Hour	Two Hours	Three Hours	Four or More Hours	None	No Response	Row Total
Low-Income		9	13	19	11	15	36	4	107
Black		8.4	12.1	17.8	10.3	14.0	33.6	3.7	10.7
		5.9	10.1	14.6	17.2	7.7	12.8	8.2	
		.9	1.3	1.9	1.1	1.5	3.6	.4	
Low-Income		54	47	43	14	74	122	26	380
White		14.2	12.4	11.3	3.7	19.5	32.1	6.8	38.0
		35.5	36.4	33.1	21.9	37.9	43.3	53.1	
		5.4	4.7	4.3	1.4	7.4	12.2	2.6	
High-Income		8	14	5	5	8	6	4	50
Black		16.0	28.0	10.0	10.0	16.0	12.0	8.0	5.0
		5.3	10.9	3.8	7.8	4.1	2.1	8.2	
		.8	1.4	.5	.5	.8	.6	.4	
High-Income		81	55	63	34	98	118	15	464
White		17.5	11.9	13.6	7.3	21.1	25.4	3.2	46.4
		53.3	42.6	48.5	53.1	50.3	41.8	30.6	
		8.1	5.5	6.3	3.4	9.8	11.8	1.5	
	Column	152	129	130	64	195	282	49	1001
	Total	15.2	12.9	13.0	6.4	19.5	28.2	4.9	100.0

Number of Missing Observations = 33

14.0 per cent of the low-income blacks in this study said they spent four or more hours a day listening to the radio.

Table 6 presents the results of crosstabulation of income/racial groups by time of day respondents listen to the radio. The highest number of responses fell in the 6:00-10:00 a.m. period, with the second highest percentages occurring in the "all day" category. Of the low-income blacks who answered the question, 70.0 per cent said they were most likely to listen to the radio in the 6:00-10:00 a.m. period, and 10.0 per cent indicated "all day." Of the low-income whites who answered the question on the time of day they listen to the radio, 40.4 per cent responded in the 6:00-10:00 a.m. category and 30.1 per cent answered in the "all day" category.

The preferred radio stations of radio-listening respondents are given in Table 7. The radio stations mentioned by respondents as stations they preferred were: WMOP, Ocala; WTMC, Ocala; WAPE, Jacksonville; WPDQ, Jacksonville; WWKE, Ocala; WSLC, Clermont; WORJ, Orlando; WTRS, Dunnellon; WFUZ-FM, Ocala; WOKB, Winter Garden; WDBO, Orlando; WZST, Leesburg; WDVH, Gainesville; WLQH, Chiefland; WGVL, Gainesville; WFAM-FM, Jacksonville; WRUF, Gainesville; WQXM-FM,

Table 6

Income/Racial Groups of Preassessment Respondents
by Time of Day Listening to Radio

Group	Count / Row % / Col % / Tot %	6 a.m. to 10 a.m.	10 a.m. to 2 p.m.	2 p.m. to 6 p.m.	6 p.m. to 10 p.m.	10 p.m. to 2 a.m.	2 a.m. to 6 a.m.	All Day	Row Total
Low-Income		42	4	4	3	1	0	6	60
Black		70.0	6.7	6.7	5.0	1.7	.0	10.0	11.8
		16.1	8.9	13.8	10.0	8.3	.0	4.6	
		8.3	.8	.8	.6	.2	.0	1.2	
Low-Income		67	16	14	14	4	1	50	166
White		40.4	9.6	8.4	8.4	2.4	.6	30.1	32.6
		25.7	35.6	48.3	46.7	33.3	100.0	38.2	
		13.2	3.1	2.8	2.8	.8	.2	9.8	
High-Income		23	0	0	1	4	0	8	36
Black		63.9	.0	.0	2.8	11.1	.0	22.2	7.1
		8.8	.0	.0	3.3	33.3	.0	6.1	
		4.5	.0	.0	.2	.8	.0	1.6	
High-Income		129	25	11	12	3	0	67	247
White		52.2	10.1	4.5	4.9	1.2	.0	27.1	48.5
		49.4	55.6	37.9	40.0	25.0	.0	51.2	
		25.3	4.9	2.2	2.4	.6	.0	13.2	
	Column	261	45	29	30	12	1	131	509
	Total	51.3	8.8	5.7	5.9	2.4	.2	25.7	100.0

Number of Missing Observations = 525

Table 7

Income/Racial Groups of Preassessment Respondents
by Preferred Radio Stations

Group	Count / Row % / Col % / Tot %	WMOP	WTMC	WAPE	WPDQ	WWKE	WSLC	WORJ	WTRS	WFUZ-FM	WOKB	WDBO	WZST
Low-Income		8	23	1	2	5	1	1	1	0	2	1	0
Black		16.0	46.0	2.0	4.0	10.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	.0	4.0	2.0	.0
		8.0	19.5	9.1	66.7	17.2	100.0	12.5	1.8	.0	66.7	12.5	.0
		1.7	4.9	.2	.4	1.1	.2	.2	.2	.0	.4	.2	.0
Low-Income		35	19	3	0	3	0	2	23	22	1	3	3
White		23.0	12.5	2.0	.0	2.0	.0	1.3	15.1	14.5	.7	2.0	2.0
		35.0	16.1	27.3	.0	10.3	.0	25.0	41.8	39.3	33.3	37.5	50.0
		7.5	4.1	.6	.0	.6	.0	.4	4.9	4.7	.2	.6	.6
High-Income		5	17	1	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Black		17.2	58.6	3.4	3.4	17.2	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
		5.0	14.4	9.1	33.3	17.2	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
		1.1	3.6	.2	.2	1.1	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
High-Income		52	59	6	0	16	0	5	31	34	0	4	3
White		22.1	25.1	2.6	.0	6.8	.0	2.1	13.2	14.5	.0	1.7	1.3
		52.0	50.0	54.5	.0	55.2	.0	62.5	56.4	60.7	.0	50.0	50.0
		11.2	12.7	1.3	.0	3.4	.0	1.1	6.7	7.3	.0	.9	.6
	Column	100	118	11	3	29	1	8	55	56	3	8	6
	Total	21.5	25.3	2.4	.6	6.2	.2	1.7	11.8	12.0	.6	1.7	1.3

Table 7 (Continued)

Group	Count / Row % / Col % / Tot %	WDVH	WLQH	WGVL	WFAM -FM	WRUF	WQXM -FM	WYSE	WHOO	WLCY	WQIK	WGTO	WWJB	Row Total
Low-Income		1	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	50
Black		2.0	6.0	.0	.0	2.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	10.7
		10.0	18.8	.0	.0	20.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	
		.2	.6	.0	.0	.2	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	
Low-Income		5	4	0	1	2	0	19	3	2	1	1	0	152
White		3.3	2.6	.0	.7	1.3	.0	12.5	2.0	1.3	.7	.7	.0	32.6
		50.0	25.0	.0	50.0	40.0	.0	79.2	75.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	.0	
		1.1	.9	.0	.2	.4	.0	4.1	.6	.4	.2	.2	.0	
High-Income		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	29
Black		.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	6.2
		.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	
		.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	
High-Income		4	9	1	1	2	1	5	1	0	0	0	1	235
White		1.7	3.8	.4	.4	.9	.4	2.1	.4	.0	.0	.0	.4	50.4
		40.0	56.3	100.0	50.0	40.0	100.0	20.8	25.0	.0	.0	.0	100.0	
		.9	1.9	.2	.2	.4	.2	1.1	.2	.0	.0	.0	.2	
	Column	10	16	1	2	5	1	24	4	2	1	1	1	466
	Total	2.1	3.4	.2	.4	1.1	.2	5.2	.9	.4	.2	.2	.2	100.0

Number of Missing Observations = 568

Clearwater; WYSE, Inverness; WHOO, Orlando; WLCY, St. Petersburg; WQIK, Jacksonville; WGTO, Cypress Gardens; WWJB, Brooksville.

Table 7 shows that two stations (WMOP, 16.0%, and WTMC, 46.0%) were chosen as "preferred radio stations" by the highest percentages of low-income black respondents who answered the question. Five radio stations received the highest number of responses from low-income whites who answered the question: WMOP, 23.0 per cent; WTMC, 12.5 per cent; WTRS, 15.1 per cent; WFUZ-FM, 14.5 per cent; and WYZE, 12.5 per cent. Two radio stations--WMOP and WTMC--appear to have been the most popular with all income/racial groups.

Newspaper Usage

The daily amounts of time that respondents said they spent reading newspapers are shown in Table 8. This table shows that 77.5 per cent of low-income blacks and 79.5 per cent of low-income whites said they read newspapers daily; 92.0 per cent of high-income blacks and 88.7 per cent of high-income whites said they read newspapers daily.

These results are somewhat similar to findings in a previous media use study. Rees and Paisley (1967) found that income was a strong predictor of newspaper use with

Table 8

Income/Racial Groups of Preassessment Respondents
by Time Spent Daily Reading Newspapers

Group	Count / Row % / Col % / Tot %	Less Than Half Hour	Half to One Hour	About One Hour	Two Hours	Three Hours	Four or More Hours	None	No Response	Row Total
Low-Income		32	32	13	5	0	1	20	4	107
Black		29.9	29.9	12.1	4.7	.0	.9	18.7	3.7	10.7
		12.9	11.6	5.2	8.2	.0	20.0	21.7	6.1	
		3.2	3.2	1.3	.5	.0	.1	2.0	.4	
Low-Income		75	88	108	26	3	3	47	31	381
White		19.7	23.1	28.3	6.8	.8	.8	12.3	8.1	38.0
		30.1	32.0	43.4	42.6	60.0	60.0	51.1	47.0	
		7.5	8.8	10.8	2.6	.3	.3	4.7	3.1	
High-Income		19	20	5	2	0	0	3	1	50
Black		38.0	40.0	10.0	4.0	.0	.0	6.0	2.0	5.0
		7.6	7.3	2.0	3.3	.0	.0	3.3	1.5	
		1.9	2.0	.5	.2	.0	.0	.3	.1	
High-Income		123	135	123	28	2	1	22	30	464
White		26.5	29.1	26.5	6.0	.4	.2	4.7	6.5	46.3
		49.4	49.1	49.4	45.9	40.0	20.0	23.9	45.5	
		12.3	13.5	12.3	2.8	.2	.1	2.2	3.0	
	Column	249	275	249	61	5	5	92	66	1002
	Total	24.9	27.4	24.9	6.1	.5	.5	9.2	6.6	100.0

Number of Missing Observations = 32

newspaper reading doubling from low- to high-income levels. The preassessment survey showed an average of 11.8 per cent difference between the percentages of low-income respondents who said they read newspapers daily and the high-income respondents who gave similar responses, with the high-income respondents reporting the higher percentages of newspaper daily readership.

The newspapers that newspaper-reading respondents said they read most are shown in Table 9 which is a crosstabulation of income/racial groups with newspapers read most. The newspapers respondents mentioned when asked what newspapers they read most were: the Ocala Star-Banner, the Orlando Sentinel, the Tampa Tribune, the Florida Times-Union, the Miami Herald, the Marion Gazette, the St. Petersburg Times, the Lake County Lake News, the Voice of South Marion, the Gainesville Sun, the Jacksonville Journal, the Williston Sun, the Levy County Journal, the Chiefland Citizen, the Citrus County Chronicle, the Crystal River Suncoast Sentinel, The Poster in Homosassa Springs, the Beverly Hills Inquirer, the Inverness Advertiser, and the Tampa Times.

Table 9 shows that the Ocala Star-Banner was the most frequently mentioned newspaper; 75.3 per cent of the low-income blacks and 38.3 per cent of the low-income whites said

Table 9

Income/Racial Groups of Preassessment Respondents
by Newspaper Read Most

Group	Count Row % Col % Tot %	Ocala Star Bann.	Or-lando Senti-nel	Tampa Tri-bune	Fla. Times Union	Miami Herald	Marion Ga-zette	St. Pete Times	Lake Co. Lake News	Voice of South Marion	Gaines-ville Sun
Low-Income		61	7	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	8
Black		75.3	8.6	1.2	2.5	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	9.9
		13.9	7.8	.8	20.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	17.4
		7.5	.9	.1	.2	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	1.0
Low-Income		115	33	72	3	0	0	33	0	1	20
White		38.3	11.0	24.0	1.0	.0	.0	11.0	.0	.3	6.7
		26.2	36.7	54.5	30.0	.0	.0	60.0	.0	100.0	43.5
		14.2	4.1	8.9	.4	.0	.0	4.1	.0	.1	2.5
High-Income		39	5	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Black		86.7	11.1	2.2	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
		8.9	5.6	.8	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
		4.8	.6	.1	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
High-Income		224	45	58	5	3	1	22	1	0	18
White		58.5	11.7	15.1	1.3	.8	.3	5.7	.3	.0	4.7
		51.0	50.0	43.9	50.0	100.0	100.0	40.0	100.0	.0	39.1
		27.7	5.6	7.2	.6	.4	.1	2.7	.1	.0	2.2
	Column	439	90	132	10	3	1	55	1	1	46
	Total	54.3	11.1	16.3	1.2	.4	.1	6.8	.1	.1	5.7

Table 9 (Continued)

Group	Count / Row % / Col % / Tot %	Jax Journal	Williston Sun	Levy County Journal	Chiefland Citizen	Citrus County Chronicle	Crystal River Suncst. Sentin.	The Poster Hom. Spgs.	Bvly. Hills Inq.	Inverness Adver-tiser	Tampa Times	Row Total
Low-Income		0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	81
Black		.0	1.2	.0	1.2	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	10.0
		.0	100.0	.0	16.7	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	
		.0	.1	.0	.1	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	
Low-Income		1	0	0	2	14	1	1	1	2	1	300
White		.3	.0	.0	.7	4.7	.3	.3	.3	.7	.3	37.1
		100.0	.0	.0	33.3	87.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
		.1	.0	.0	.2	1.7	.1	.1	.1	.2	.1	
High-Income		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	45
Black		.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	5.6
		.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	
		.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	
High-Income		0	0	1	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	383
White		.0	.0	.3	.8	.5	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	47.3
		.0	.0	100.0	50.0	12.5	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	
		.0	.0	.1	.4	.2	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	
	Column	1	1	1	6	16	1	1	1	2	1	809
	Total	.1	.1	.1	.7	2.0	.1	.1	.1	.2	.1	100.0

Number of Missing Observations = 225

they read the Ocala Star-Banner more than any other newspaper.

Movie Usage

Table 10 shows the frequency of movie theater attendance by income/racial groups. The table reveals that 25.1 per cent of the low-income blacks and 15.7 per cent of the low-income whites said they attend movies; 50.0 per cent of the high-income blacks and 39.7 per cent of the high-income whites said they attend movies.

Data on respondents' favorite nights for attending movies are presented in Table 11. The highest percentage (5.6%) of low-income black respondents said they had no favorite night or nights for attending movies. However, 4.7 per cent indicated "Sunday," .9 per cent said "Saturday," and 4.7 per cent indicated "weekends"; thus, 10.3 per cent of the low-income black respondents favored movie attendance on weekends. The highest percentage of low-income whites (7.6%) said they had no favorite night or nights for movie attendance.

The movie theaters that movie-going respondents said they preferred to attend are shown in Table 12. The theaters that the respondents said they preferred to attend were:

Table 10

Income/Racial Groups of Preassessment Respondents
by Frequency of Movie Attendance

Group	Count / Row % / Col % / Tot %	Several Times a Week	About Once Per Week	Several Times a Month	About Once a Month	Less Than Once a Month	Never	No Answer	Row Total
Low-Income		0	3	7	7	10	74	6	107
Black		.0	2.8	6.5	6.5	9.3	69.2	5.6	10.7
		.0	23.1	15.9	9.7	6.2	10.9	20.7	
		.0	.3	.7	.7	1.0	7.4	.6	
Low-Income		0	4	9	18	29	308	13	381
White		.0	1.0	2.4	4.7	7.6	80.8	3.4	38.0
		.0	30.8	20.5	25.0	18.0	45.4	44.8	
		.0	.4	.9	1.8	2.9	30.7	1.3	
High-Income		1	2	4	6	12	23	2	50
Black		2.0	4.0	8.0	12.0	24.0	46.0	4.0	5.0
		16.7	15.4	9.1	8.3	7.5	3.4	6.9	
		.1	.2	.4	.6	1.2	2.3	.2	
High-Income		5	4	24	41	110	273	8	465
White		1.1	.9	5.2	8.8	23.7	58.7	1.7	46.4
		83.3	30.8	54.5	56.9	68.3	40.3	27.6	
		.5	.4	2.4	4.1	11.0	27.2	.8	
	Column	6	13	44	72	161	678	29	1003
	Total	.6	1.3	4.4	7.2	16.1	67.6	2.9	100.0

Number of Missing Observations = 31

Table 11

Income/Racial Groups of Preassessment Respondents
by Times of Movie Attendance

Group	Count / Row % / Col % / Tot %	Sunday	Monday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Weekends	Weekdays	Other Combinations	No Favorites	No Answer	Not Applicable	Row Total
Low-Income Black		5	0	3	1	4	1	5	0	1	6	3	78	107
		4.7	.0	2.8	.9	3.7	.9	4.7	.0	.9	5.6	2.8	72.9	10.7
		38.5	.0	60.0	100.0	15.4	2.4	11.9	.0	25.0	4.5	13.6	11.0	
		.5	.0	.3	.1	.4	.1	.5	.0	.1	.6	.3	7.8	
Low-Income White		2	1	0	0	6	9	8	0	0	29	6	320	381
		.5	.3	.0	.0	1.6	2.4	2.1	.0	.0	7.6	1.6	84.0	38.0
		15.4	50.0	.0	.0	23.1	22.0	19.0	.0	.0	22.0	27.3	45.2	
		.2	.1	.0	.0	.6	.9	.8	.0	.0	2.9	.6	31.9	
High-Income Black		2	0	0	0	2	6	2	2	1	9	3	23	50
		4.0	.0	.0	.0	4.0	12.0	4.0	4.0	2.0	18.0	6.0	46.0	5.0
		15.4	.0	.0	.0	7.7	14.6	4.8	28.6	25.0	6.8	13.6	3.2	
		.2	.0	.0	.0	.2	.6	.2	.2	.1	.9	.3	2.3	
High-Income White		4	1	2	0	14	25	27	5	2	88	10	287	465
		.9	.2	.4	.0	3.0	5.4	5.8	1.1	.4	18.9	2.2	61.7	46.4
		30.8	50.0	40.0	.0	53.8	61.0	64.3	71.4	50.0	66.7	45.5	40.5	
		.4	.1	.2	.0	1.4	2.5	2.7	.5	.2	8.8	1.0	28.6	
	Column Total	13	2	5	1	26	41	42	7	4	132	22	708	1003
		1.3	.2	.5	.1	2.6	4.1	4.2	.7	.4	13.2	2.2	70.6	100.0

Number of Missing Observation - 31

Table 12

Income/Racial Groups of Preassessment Respondents
by Movie Theaters Attended Most Often

Group	Count / Row % / Col % / Tot %	Fla. Thetr Ocala	Ocala Twin	Ocala Drive In	Sky-lark D.I. Ocala	Sprgs Thetr Ocala	Plaza Eustis	Vista Lees-burg	Su-burbia Gaines-ville	Arcade Will-iston	Chief Chief-land	In-ver-ness	Sprgs Cryst River	Total
Low-Income	6	4	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	14
Black	42.9	28.6	7.1	7.1	7.1	.0	.0	7.1	.0	.0	.0	.0	11.4
	54.5	9.1	20.0	50.0	2.4	.0	.0	50.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	
	4.9	3.3	.8	.8	.8	.0	.0	.8	.0	.0	.0	.0	
Low-Income	0	10	2	0	6	0	1	1	2	0	1	4	27
White	.0	37.0	7.4	.0	22.2	.0	3.7	3.7	7.4	.0	3.7	14.8	22.0
	.0	22.7	40.0	.0	14.3	.0	100.0	50.0	100.0	.0	25.0	50.0	
	.0	8.1	1.6	.0	4.9	.0	.8	.8	1.6	.0	.8	3.3	
High-Income	5	3	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	13
Black	38.5	23.1	7.7	.0	30.8	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	10.6
	45.5	6.8	20.0	.0	9.5	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	
	4.1	2.4	.8	.0	3.3	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	
High-Income	0	27	1	1	31	1	0	0	0	1	3	4	69
White	.0	39.1	1.4	1.4	44.9	1.4	.0	.0	.0	1.4	4.3	5.8	56.1
	.0	61.4	20.0	50.0	73.8	100.0	.0	.0	.0	100.0	75.0	50.0	
	.0	22.0	.8	.8	25.2	.8	.0	.0	.0	.8	2.4	3.3	
Column Total	11	44	5	2	42	1	1	2	2	1	4	8	123
	8.9	35.8	4.1	1.6	34.1	.8	.8	1.6	1.6	.8	3.3	6.5	100.0

Number of Missing Observations = 911

the Florida Theater in Ocala, the Ocala Twin Theater, the Ocala Drive In Theater, the Skylark Drive In Theater in Ocala, the Springs Theater in Ocala, the Plaza Theater in Eustis, the Vista Theater in Leesburg, the Suburbia Drive In Theater in Gainesville, the Arcade Theater in Williston, the Chief Theater in Chiefland, the Inverness Theater, and the Springs Theater in Crystal River.

Table 12 indicates movie-going low-income blacks primarily preferred two theaters; the Florida Theater was mentioned by 42.9 per cent and the Ocala Twin was mentioned by 28.6 per cent. Movie-going low-income whites primarily preferred two theaters: the Ocala Twin (37.0%) and the Springs Theater (22.2%).

Conclusions on Media Use

Findings from the preassessment survey on the media use habits of respondents illustrate that different population subgroups have different media use patterns. These patterns should be considered when designing an information campaign to disseminate occupational education program information to target population groups.

Comparison of Preassessment and Postassessment Sample Characteristics

It is possible that random variation could have resulted in differences in the demographic characteristics of individuals in the preassessment survey and the postassessment survey. Although the same sampling procedures were used in the postassessment survey as in the preassessment survey, a comparison of the samples' demographic data was made in order to assure their similarity. The comparison showed that any variations were very minor and thus could not account for possible differences in preassessment and postassessment information levels.

County of Residence

Findings from the preassessment survey show that 633 (61.2%) of the respondents were from Marion County (of which 406 were from Ocala), 286 (27.7%) were from Citrus County, and 115 (11.1%) were from Levy County. In the postassessment survey, 660 (65.5%) were from Marion County (of which 394 were from Ocala), 226 (22.4%) were from Citrus County, and 122 (12.1%) were from Levy County.

Urban/Nonurban Residency

For the purpose of this study, "urban" was considered to be any incorporated area of 2,500 or more residents. According to the Chambers of Commerce in the service area of Central Florida Community College, five incorporated areas were urban according to this definition. In Marion County, Ocala was the only area considered urban. In Citrus County, Crystal River and Inverness were classified as urban; in Levy County, Williston and Chiefland were classified urban.

In the preassessment survey, 620 (60%) of the respondents were considered urban and the remaining 414 (40%) were considered nonurban. In the postassessment survey, 578 (57.3%) were considered urban and the remaining 430 (42.7%) were considered nonurban.

Length of Area Residency

The preassessment survey results revealed that 658 (63.6%) of the respondents said they had lived in the area more than five years, and 309 (29.9%) said between one and five years. Thus, 967 (93.5%) of the 1,034 preassessment respondents had lived in the area over a year. The post-assessment results showed that 673 (66.8%) of the respondents said they had lived in the area more than five years, and

280 (27.8%) said between one and five years. Thus, 953 (94.5%) of the 1,008 postassessment respondents had lived in the area over a year. These high percentages in both surveys indicate that any lack of information the respondents had about occupational education could not be attributed to the respondents living in the area only a short while.

Occupation

The primary reason for asking the respondents both their occupations and income levels was to assist in determining their income levels if they refused to state their annual family incomes. However, these data may be of value in planning occupational education programs and in identifying target population groups. Clearly, the large percentages of housewives in both surveys reveal potential for improving family income through occupational education.

Results of the preassessment survey show that 281 (27.2%) of the 1,034 respondents said they were housewives and 271 (26.2%) said they were retired; 87 (8.4%) said they were professional or technical workers; 59 (5.7%) said they were service workers; 52 (5.0%) said they were salesworkers; and 52 (5.0%) said they were non-farm laborers. Less than 5.0 per cent of respondents classified their occupations in each of the other occupation categories.

In the postassessment survey, 277 (27.5%) of the 1,008 respondents said they were retired and 226 (22.4%) said they were housewives; 81 (8.0%) said they were professional or technical workers; 60 (6.0%) said they were service workers; 57 (5.7%) said they were unemployed; 55 (5.5%) said they were students; and 52 (5.2%) said they were clerical workers. Less than 5.0 per cent of respondents classified their occupations in each of the other occupation categories.

Education

The preassessment survey results show that 413 (39.9%) of the 1,034 respondents said completion of high school was their educational level. However, 287 (27.8%) said they had completed less than a high school education. The remaining 334 (32.3%) respondents said they had completed at least one to three years of college. In the postassessment survey, 343 (34.0%) of the 1,008 respondents said completion of high school was their educational level; 319 (31.6%) said they had less than a high school education; and the remaining 295 (29.3%) of the respondents said they had completed at least one to three years of college.

Age

The preassessment survey results indicated that 284 (27.5%) of the 1,034 respondents said they were 65 or older; 389 (37.6%) were between 45 and 64 years of age; 65.1 per cent of the respondents were 45 years or older. Another 266 (25.7%) were between 25 and 44 years of age. In the postassessment survey, 341 (33.8%) of the 1,008 respondents reported they were between 45 and 64 years old; 280 (27.8%) said they were 65 years or older; 61.6 per cent were 45 years or older. Also, 257 (25.5%) said they were between 25 and 44 years of age.

Sex

In the preassessment survey, 705 (68.2%) of the 1,034 respondents were female and 326 (31.5%) were male. In the postassessment survey, 699 (69.3%) of the 1,008 respondents were female and 304 (30.2%) were male.

Race

Because of the small number of nonblack and nonwhite respondents (9 in the preassessment survey and 12 in the postassessment survey), only responses by members of the

white and black races were analyzed in this study. In the preassessment survey, 846 (81.8%) said they were white and 157 (15.2%) said they were black. In the postassessment survey, 824 (81.7%) said they were white and 166 (16.5%) said they were black.

Family Income

In the preassessment survey, 502 (48.5%) of the 1,034 respondents reported (or it was estimated) that they had annual family incomes of less than $7,000 and 488 (47.2%) had annual family incomes of $7,000 or more. In the post-assessment survey, 493 (48.9%) of the 1,008 respondents reported (or it was estimated) that they had annual family incomes of less than $7,000 and 476 (47.2%) had annual family incomes of $7,000 or more. Annual family income information was not available in 44 cases in the pre-assessment survey and 39 cases in the postassessment survey.

Comparison of Preassessment and Postassessment Information Levels

Description of the Levels

Four levels of information were designated in this study as follows:

Level 1: Respondents did not know that occupational education courses were offered in the area, where such courses were offered, or why such courses were offered.

Level 2: Respondents knew that occupational education courses were offered in the area, but did not know where or why they were offered.

Level 3: Respondents knew that occupational education courses were offered in the area and were able to name some places in the area where such courses were offered. They did not know why such courses were offered.

Level 4: Respondents knew that occupational education courses were offered in the area, were able to name some places in the area where such courses were offered, and gave acceptable reasons as to why such courses were offered.

The relationships of the levels of information to the questions asked in the preassessment survey and post-assessment survey questionnaires were straightforward except for on Level 4 (why the courses were offered). Question 4 ("Do you think tax money ought to be used to pay for job training courses for people?") and Question 5 ("Why do you think so?") were used as indirect means of determining if respondents knew why occupational education courses were offered.

The following were deemed acceptable reasons why occupational education courses are offered: Occupational education

-- helps people find jobs.

-- gives people entry-level skills.

-- provides people with skills for promotion in their jobs.

-- helps improve job productivity by providing job skills.

-- helps provide more tax revenue (more-skilled people would pay higher taxes than they would without such skills).

-- helps the community by generating more tax revenue and/or training people for jobs.

-- helps the country/state/community by providing job skills for persons receiving welfare assistance and thus helping those people find jobs.

Findings on Information Levels

Table 13 shows the classification of the target groups according to information level for the preassessment and postassessment surveys. It can be observed from this table that both the low-income white and low-income black target

Table 13

Selected Target Groups Classified by Occupational Education Information Levels Prior to and After Information Dissemination

Group		No Information (%)	That (%)	Where (%)	Why (%)	N
Low-Income White	Prior	63.0	3.3	31.2	2.5	365
	After	54.7	7.3	33.7	4.3	395
	Difference	-8.3*	4.0*	2.5	1.8	
Low-Income Black	Prior	84.9	1.9	12.3	.9	106
	After	69.6	4.8	22.4	3.2	125
	Difference	-15.3*	2.9	10.1*	2.3	
High-Income White	Prior	42.0	3.9	41.1	12.9	457
	After	35.9	4.4	49.9	9.8	429
	Difference	-6.1*	.5	8.8*	-3.1	
High-Income Black	Prior	57.1	6.1	22.4	14.3	49
	After	61.0	.0	34.1	4.9	41
	Difference	3.9	-6.1	11.7	-9.4	

*Significant at the .05 level.

groups had a loss in percentage in the "No Information" level (-8.3% and -15.3%, respectively). These losses in percentage each were statistically significant at the .05 level.* The negative numbers in the "No Information" category indicate that subjects gained information about occupational education between the preassessment survey and the postassessment survey. It also should be noted that the next level (knew that courses were offered) showed percentage increases for both the low-income white and low-income black target groups; only the increase for the low-income white group was significant at the .05 level.

---

*Statistical significance was determined from the formula:

$$(\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2) \pm z\alpha/2 \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}_1\hat{q}_1}{n_1} + \frac{\hat{p}_2\hat{q}_2}{n_2}}$$

Where $\hat{p}_1$ is proportion in postassessment survey

$\hat{p}_2$ is proportion in preassessment survey

$z\alpha/2$ is percentage under Z curve distribution at .05% level or 1.96

n_1 and n_2 are samples of the postassessment and preassessments surveys respectively.

$\hat{q}_1 = 1-\hat{p}_1$ and $\hat{q}_2 = 1-\hat{p}_2$

However, the increase in percentage at the next level (knew where courses were offered) for the low-income black group increased significantly at the .05 level. There were increases in both groups at the "why" level, but the increases were not statistically significant at the .05 level. Apparently, the loss of percentages in the "No Information" level resulted in increases in percentages in higher levels.

While high-income white and high-income black were not target groups of prime interest in this study, it was of interest to include them as information on them was available as a result of the sampling procedure. It can be observed that in the "No Information" level there was a loss in the high-income white group of 6.1 per cent (significant at the .05 level). An increase in percentage (8.8%) can be noted in this group at the "Where" level (significant at the .05 level). However, no other statistically significant increase or decrease in percentage occurred for the high-income groups.

Sources of Occupational Education Information

Table 14 shows the sources to which respondents attributed their knowledge of occupational education information.

Table 14

Income/Racial Groups of Postassessment Respondents by Source of Information About Occupational Education Programs

Group	Count / Row % / Col % / Tot %	Television	Radio	Newspaper	Combination	Personal Contact	Other	Don't Know	Not Applicable	Row Total
Low-Income		0	0	9	4	14	3	7	88	125
Black		.0	.0	7.2	3.2	11.2	2.4	5.6	70.4	12.6
		.0	.0	7.1	5.6	7.1	7.0	17.5	17.6	
		.0	.0	.9	.4	1.4	.3	.7	8.9	
Low-Income		3	3	42	25	65	16	13	227	394
White		.8	.8	10.7	6.3	16.5	4.1	3.3	57.6	39.8
		100.0	50.0	33.3	34.7	32.8	37.2	32.5	45.3	
		.3	.3	4.2	2.5	6.6	1.6	1.3	23.0	
High-Income		0	0	3	2	9	0	2	25	41
Black		.0	.0	7.3	4.9	22.0	.0	4.9	61.0	4.1
		.0	.0	2.4	2.8	4.5	.0	5.0	5.0	
		.0	.0	.3	.2	.9	.0	.2	2.5	
High-Income		0	3	72	41	110	24	18	161	429
White		.0	.7	16.8	9.6	25.6	5.6	4.2	37.5	43.4
		.0	50.0	57.1	56.9	55.6	55.8	45.0	32.1	
		.0	.3	7.3	4.1	11.1	2.4	1.8	16.3	
	Column	3	6	126	72	198	43	40	501	989
	Total	.3	.6	12.7	7.3	20.0	4.3	4.0	50.7	100.0

Number of Missing Observations = 19

The single source cited by the most respondents was "personal contact"; this source comprised 20.0 per cent of the respondents. The newspaper was mentioned by 12.7 per cent of the respondents, and 7.3 per cent mentioned multiple sources. The other sources were mentioned less frequently.

While a media effect may operate through personal contact, the reason for the comparatively high frequency of personal contact may be the lack of organized effort to disseminate information in the past. Since little organized effort had been made previously, the percentage cited for the newspaper and radio most likely were related to efforts of this project. Therefore, the newspaper and the radio are the most promising media to raise effectively the levels of occupational education information in the service area of Central Florida Community College.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study determined the levels of information about occupational education held by persons in the service area of Central Florida Community College. The numbers of persons in income/racial groups at each level were determined prior to and after an information dissemination campaign was conducted to raise information levels.

An analysis of the results revealed that significant change occurred in numbers of persons at the various levels for both low-income white and low-income black groups. Specifically, fewer persons were at the "No Information" level and more persons were in the higher levels after the information campaign.

The results of the preassessment survey on levels of information substantiate findings reported by Dobson and Edwards (1971) on their 1971 statewide survey of Florida residents. Dobson and Edwards found that levels of specific information about vocational and technical education opportunities were extremely low, and persons in lower

status groups--those most likely to benefit from vocational and technical education courses--had less information about vocational and technical education than other groups.

This study supports the theory that different socio-economic groups have different media use patterns and different levels of information about occupational education. It also supports the hypothesis that levels of information about occupational education could be raised by channelling information to target population groups through media predominantly used by the target population groups.

Clearly, the study shows that the occupational education information levels of the lower income groups can be significantly raised through appropriate use of media. If the condition of having basic information about occupational education is a prerequisite for desire of citizens to improve their economic situation and/or to adequately support occupational education through the tax structure, the implementation of similar information projects to raise information levels would be worthwhile.

Recommendations

That occupational education can provide economic mobility for individuals as well as economic development for

communities is beyond question. However, the literature and the results of this study indicate that the persons who could profit most from occupational education programs know very little about such programs.

If knowledge of program information is a prerequisite for enrollment in educational programs, it is questionable that equal access is being provided currently by postsecondary educational institutions offering occupational education programs when discrepancies exist in levels of information between income/racial groups.

Further, it should be noted that public support for occupational education may relate to the levels of information of citizens.

For these reasons, postsecondary educational institutions offering occupational education should assume responsibility for assessing and attempting to raise information levels of citizens in their service area. The purpose of this study was to assist institutions which are assuming this responsibility; specifically, multi-media materials were developed and evaluated in order to present information about occupational education to specific target groups. These materials are included in the Appendices of this report. The following are recommendations on the use of these materials:

1. Appendices A and B contain the questionnaires used in this study. It is recommended that postsecondary educational institutions offering occupational education construct similar questionnaires for assessing levels of information and media use patterns of citizens in their service areas. Data collected with these instruments will facilitate the identification of target groups to be recipients of occupational education program information.

2. Appendix C contains media materials used in the information campaign in this study. These are recommended as types of cutlines, radio and film scripts, and newspaper advertisement copy that can be used in information campaigns.

3. Appendix D shows comparative costs of paid advertising time or space and free public service announcements of media considered for this study. It can be observed from this appendix that the cost of prime television time is prohibitive for most postsecondary educational institutions offering occupational education programs. Further, the few free public service announcements that are available are run at times when few persons in the target groups are watching television. However, radio and newspaper time and space are relatively inexpensive, and useful public service time and space can be obtained. Since the results of this

study were attributed to radio and newspaper, these media are recommended as effective channels for disseminating occupational education program information.

Only one movie theater of three approached would provide free or paid advertisement time because of prohibitive policies of the other two theaters. Movie theaters in the service area of postsecondary educational institutions offering occupational education programs should be contacted before any movies are made to be shown in theaters. Should it be ascertained that theaters will run films about occupational education programs, the movie script in Appendix C could be used as a movie script-writing guide. Also, the actual film used in this study could be borrowed from the Florida State Advisory Council on Vocational and Technical Education.

Implications for Further Research

This study was concerned with raising occupational education levels of information held by lower income population subgroups. Because public support of occupational education may relate to the levels of occupational education information held by citizens, further research is recommended to raise occupational education information

levels of higher income population subgroups. In such research, occupational education information should be channeled through media used most by the high-income white and black subgroups rather than by low-income white and black subgroups as was done in this study. This suggested research could focus on disseminating information on why occupational education is offered as a method of increasing public tax support for occupational education.

Research also is suggested to determine the relationship between occupational education information levels held by the low-income white and black subgroups and their representation in occupational education programs. Curtis (1970) discovered that the percentage of high school graduates enrolling in occupational education programs in Florida community colleges was positively related to scores on a test of information. A similar finding was reported by Matthews (1970); he concluded that growth in overall enrollment in North Carolina community college occupational programs was indicative of effective dissemination of program information. Both the Curtis and the Matthews studies suggest the obvious conclusion that enrollment in occupational education programs is related to dissemination of program information. The recommended research should determine the relationship

between percentages of low-income black and low-income white students enrolled in occupational education courses and percentages of citizens of those subgroups in service areas of occupational education institutions.

Further study also is recommended to determine the optimum frequency with which program information should be disseminated. Such research should ascertain the extent to which information levels change over time because of information decay and also should determine the tolerance of media for disseminating program information.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PREASSESSMENT SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Telephone Number _____

PREASSESSMENT INTERVIEW GUIDE

Case Number _____ Respondent's Name_____

Address_____
Street and Number

_____
City and Town

Date of Interview_____Interview Starting Time_____

Hello! I'm_____
(INTERVIEWER, WRITE YOUR NAME IN BLANK) with the Marion, Citrus and Levy County vocational education research project. We're trying to find out what people in this area think about job training. I'd appreciate your answering a few questions to help us.

---

1. Do you know if any vocational and technical education courses such as job training in agriculture, electricity, and mechanics are offered in this area?

   1_____Yes

   2_____No (SKIP QUESTIONS 2-3)

   3_____No answer (SKIP QUESTIONS 2-3)

2. Where are they offered?_____

   _____

   _____

   _____

1_____Mentioned one training center

2_____Mentioned two training centers

3_____Mentioned three training centers

4_____Mentioned four or more training centers

5_____Mentioned programs, but don't know where

6_____No answer

7_____Not applicable

3. How did you happen to know about this job training?

1_____Television

2_____Radio

3_____Newspaper

4_____Billboard

5_____Combination of media

6_____Personal contact

7_____Other (WRITE IN!)

_____

8_____Don't know

9_____Not applicable

4. Do you think tax money ought to be used to pay for job training courses for people?

1_____Yes

2_____No

3_____No answer (SKIP QUESTION 5)

5. Why do you think so?_____

_____

_____

_____

We would like to get information about job training to people like you by using newspapers, television, radio, and movies.

---

6. How much time do you usually spend a day watching television?

1_____Less than one hour

2_____One hour

3_____Two hours

4_____Three hours

5_____Four or more hours

6_____None (SKIP QUESTIONS 7-9)

7_____No response

7. Generally, what hours do you watch television most?

_____

_____

8. If you could watch only one television channel, which one would you choose?

_____

9. Is that on cable TV?

1_____Yes

2_____No

3_____Don't know

4_____No answer

5_____Not applicable

10. About how many hours a day do you spend listening to the radio?

1_____Less than one hour
2_____One hour
3_____Two hours
4_____Three hours
5_____Four or more hours
6_____None (SKIP QUESTIONS 11-12)
7_____No response

11. Generally, what hours would you most likely be listening to the radio?

_____

_____

12. If you could listen to only one radio station, which one would you choose?

_____

13. What newspapers do you read regularly?

_____

_____

14. What one newspaper do you read the most?

_____

15. How much time do you spend a day reading newspapers?

1_____Less than ½ hour
2_____Less than one hour but over ½ hour
3_____About one hour
4_____Two hours
5_____Three hours
6_____Four or more hours
7_____None
8_____No response

16. About how often do you go to the movies?

1_____Several times a week
2_____About once a week
3_____Several times a month
4_____About once a month
5_____Less than once a month
6_____Never (SKIP QUESTIONS 17-18)
7_____No answer

17. What movie theater do you go to most often?

_____

_____

18. What night or nights are your favorites for going to the movies?

1_____Sunday
2_____Monday
3_____Tuesday
4_____Wednesday
5_____Thursday
6_____Friday
7_____Saturday
8_____No favorites
9_____No answer
10_____Not applicable

Finally, I need to ask you a few more questions that will help us offer job training courses to many different kinds of people.

---

19. How long have you lived in this area?

1_____less than 6 months
2_____6 months - 1 year
3_____1-5 years
4_____More than 5 years

20. What kind of work do you do?_____

_____

_____

White-Collar Workers

1_____Professional and technical workers

2_____Managers and administrators (except farm)

3_____Salesworkers

4_____Clerical workers

Blue-Collar Workers

5_____Craftsmen and kindred workers

6_____Operatives

7_____Nonfarm laborers

8_____Service workers

9_____Farm workers

Other

10_____Housewife (WHAT IS YOUR HUSBAND'S OCCUPATION?

_____)

11_____Student

12_____Unemployed

13_____Retired (WHAT DID YOU DO FOR A LIVING BEFORE RETIREMENT?

_____)

21. What was the highest grade you completed in school?

Elementary School

1_____Under 5 years

2_____5-7 years

3_____8 years

High School

4_____1-3 years

5_____4 years

College

6_____1-3 years

7_____4 years or more

8_____No answer

22. (INTERVIEWER, TRY TO GUESS AT AGE GROUP AND ASK ABOUT THAT GROUP!)

Are you?

1_____Under 16 years

2_____16-19 years

3_____20-24 years

4_____25-44 years

5_____45-64 years

6_____65 years or over

7_____No answer

23. Your race?

1_____White

2_____Black

3_____Oriental-American

4_____American Indian

5_____Spanish-American

6_____Other (WRITE IN!)

_____

7_____No answer

24. And finally, is your family income? (INTERVIEWER, TRY TO GUESS INCOME AND ASK ABOUT THAT INCOME GROUP!)

1_____Under $3,000

2_____Between $3,000 and $4,999

3_____Between $5,000 and $6,999

4_____Between $7,000 and $9,999

5_____Between $10,000 and $14,999

6_____$15,000 and over

7_____No answer

8_____Doesn't know annual income, but makes_____WEEKLY

or _____MONTHLY

Thank you for cooperating with us. Your answers will help us in trying to provide job training courses and programs for more people in this area.

END OF INTERVIEW

Interview Completion Time _____

25. (INTERVIEWER, WHAT IS THE RESPONDENT'S SEX?)

1_____Male

2_____Female

APPENDIX B

POSTASSESSMENT SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Telephone Number_____

POSTASSESSMENT INTERVIEW GUIDE

Case Number _____ Respondent's Name_____

Address_____
Street and Number

_____
City and Town

Date of Interview_____ Interview Starting Time_____

Hello! I'm _____
(INTERVIEWER, WRITE YOUR NAME IN BLANK) with the Marion, Citrus, and Levy County vocational education research project. We're trying to find out what people in this area think about job training. I'd appreciate your answering a few questions to help us.

---

1. Do you know if any vocational and technical education courses such as job training in agriculture, electricity, and mechanics are offered in this area?

   1_____Yes

   2_____No (SKIP QUESTIONS 2-3)

   3_____No answer (SKIP QUESTIONS 2-3)

2. Where are they offered?_____

   _____

   _____

   _____

1_____Mentioned one training center

2_____Mentioned two training centers

3_____Mentioned three training centers

4_____Mentioned four or more training centers

5_____Mentioned programs, but don't know where

6_____No answer

7_____Not applicable

3. How did you happen to know about this job training?

1_____Television

2_____Radio

3_____Newspaper

4_____Billboard

5_____Combination of media

6_____Personal contact

7_____Other (WRITE IN!)

_____

8_____Don't know

9_____Not applicable

4. Do you think tax money ought to be used to pay for job training courses for people?

1_____Yes

2_____No

3_____No answer (SKIP QUESTION 5)

5. Why do you think so?_____

_____

_____

_____

At Central Florida Community College, we have been trying to publicize our vocational and technical education courses through such media as television, radio, and newspapers. We are trying to help people prepare themselves to get jobs, to get promoted in their present jobs, or to get better jobs. I need to ask you a few more questions that will help us offer job training courses to many different kinds of people.

---

6. What kind of work do you do?_____

_____

_____

White-Collar Workers

1_____Professional and technical workers

2_____Managers and administrators (except farm)

3_____Salesworkers

4_____Clerical workers

Blue-Collar Workers

5_____Craftsmen and kindred workers

6_____Operatives

7_____Nonfarm laborers

8_____Service workers

9_____Farm workers

Other

10_____Housewife (WHAT IS YOUR HUSBAND'S OCCUPATION?

_____)

11_____Student

12_____Unemployed

13_____Retired (WHAT DID YOU DO FOR A LIVING BEFORE RETIREMENT?

_____)

7. How long have you lived in this area?

1_____Less than 6 months

2_____6 months - 1 year

3_____1-5 years

4_____More than 5 years

8. What was the highest grade you completed in school?

Elementary School

1_____Under 5 years

2_____5-7 years

3_____8 years

High School

4_____1-3 years

5_____4 years

College

6_____1-3 years

7_____4 years or more

8_____No answer

9. (INTERVIEWER, TRY TO GUESS AT AGE GROUP AND ASK ABOUT THAT GROUP!)

Are you?

1_____Under 16 years

2_____16-19 years

3_____20-24 years

4_____25-44 years

5_____45-64 years

6_____65 years or over

7_____No answer

10. Your race?

1_____White

2_____Black

3_____Oriental-American

4_____American Indian

5_____Spanish-American

6_____Other (WRITE IN!)

_____

7_____No answer

11. And finally, is your family income? (INTERVIEWER, TRY TO GUESS INCOME AND ASK ABOUT THAT INCOME GROUP!)

1_____Under $3,000

2_____Between $3,000 and $4,999

3_____Between $5,000 and $6,999

4_____Between $7,000 and $9,999

5_____Between $10,000 and $14,999

6_____$15,000 and over

7_____No answer

8_____Doesn't know annual income, but makes_____WEEKLY.

or _____MONTHLY.

Thank you for cooperating with us. Your answers will help us in trying to provide job training courses and programs for more people in this area.

END OF INTERVIEW

Interview Completion Time _____

12. (INTERVIEWER, WHAT IS THE RESPONDENT'S SEX?)

1____Male

2____Female

APPENDIX C

MEDIA MATERIALS

SCRIPT FOR MOVIE ON VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Vocational education could mean something to you!

Are you:

-- a high school graduate seeking a vocation?

-- a housewife with no recent training wanting to work?

-- a returning veteran facing a tight job market?

-- an adult temporarily out of work?

-- employed but seeking advancement on the job or a new opportunity?

The State of Florida supports opportunity for persons with these and other goals through high school, area vocational centers, and community colleges.

In this area, this opportunity is provided by Central Florida Community College, where modern training programs are offered which lead to steady-paying jobs with a future. Examples of such programs are law enforcement, radiological health technology, nursing, cosmetology, and machine tool and radio-TV repair. Completion of high school is not required for admission to many of these programs.

For further information, phone college admissions.

SCRIPT FOR RADIO PUBLIC SERVICE ANNOUNCEMENT
ON VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Vocational education could mean a lot to you! Are you:

-- a high school graduate looking for a career?

-- a housewife with no recent training who wants to work?

-- a returning veteran facing a tight job market?

-- out of work?

-- employed but seeking a promotion or a better job?

Central Florida Community College offers training programs which lead to steady-paying jobs. These programs include nursing, law enforcement, and radio-TV repair. A high school diploma is not required for many programs.

For more information, call Central Florida Community College at 237-2111.

SCRIPT FOR RADIO PUBLIC SERVICE ANNOUNCEMENT
ON VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Vocational education could mean a lot to you!

Central Florida Community College in Ocala offers a wide variety of training programs which lead to steady-paying jobs. These programs include law enforcement, radiological health technology, nursing, cosmetology, and machine tool and radio-TV repair. Many programs do not require a high school diploma.

For more information, call Central Florida Community College at 237-2111, Extension 86.

SCRIPT FOR RADIO PUBLIC SERVICE ANNOUNCEMENT
ON VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Are you looking for a job or are you seeking advancement in your present job? If so, vocational and technical education could be a great help to you.

Central Florida Community College in Ocala offers many training programs which lead to steady-paying jobs. Among these programs are nursing, radiological health technology, and law enforcement. A high school diploma is not required for many programs.

For more information, call Central Florida Community College at 237-2111, Extension 86.

NEWSPAPER CLASSIFIED ADVERTISEMENT ON VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Want a job? Central Florida Community College offers vocational and technical courses leading to steady-paying jobs. Call 237-2111, Ext. 86.

CUTLINES FOR NEWSPAPER PHOTOGRAPH ON VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Hammer Traded for T-Square

James Bolomey of Ocala has been confined to a wheelchair since he fell off a roof while working as a carpenter. Now he is retraining in a related field--building construction technology--at Central Florida Community College. That vocational education program prepares students for careers as supervisors or contractors of small- to medium-size residential and commercial buildings. Additional information concerning vocational education program is available by contacting the college in Ocala.

CUTLINES FOR NEWSPAPER PHOTOGRAPH ON VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Clockwork

Pete Buford, a student in the machine shop vocational education program at Central Florida Community College, is spending an awful lot of time now so that he can tell time later. Buford is making his own grandfather clock from scratch, metal gears and all. Information concerning the vocational education program is available by contacting the college.

CUTLINES FOR NEWSPAPER PHOTOGRAPH ON VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Students Aid 'Model' Patient

Marsia Dyer, left, and Diane Schomburg are learning to bathe bedridden patients as part of their training in Central Florida Community College's nursing program. The manikin is a practice patient in this CFCC vocational education program. Information concerning vocational education programs is available by contacting the college.

CUTLINES FOR NEWSPAPER PHOTOGRAPH ON VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Eggplant

Dr. W. W. McMillen (far right), agribusiness technology instructor at Central Florida Community College, and three students in that vocational education program are checking the effects of different irrigation systems on growth of eggplants. The students are (left to right) Bob Craft, Jack Cook, and Nick Hall. Agribusiness technology prepares students for careers in such areas as farm management, horse and cattle farming, farm equipment sales work, and feed or seed and fertilizer sales work. Additional information concerning vocational education programs is available by contacting the college.

APPENDIX D

COMPARATIVE COSTS OF MEDIA TIME/SPACE

Table D-1

Comparative Costs of Media Considered for Information Campaign

Media	Time/Space	Cost	PSA
Television	Prime	$145-$400/ 30 seconds	Unlikely
	Station Discretion	Free	Available but Infrequent
Radio	6:00-10:00 a.m.	$3.65/30 seconds	Available and Likely
Newspaper	News Columns	Free	Available
	Classified Advertisement (five lines)	$23.80/two weeks	Available
Movie	Regular Cycle	Free	Available

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Roland Joseph Scott was born in Tulsa, Oklahoma, on April 5, 1940. He was graduated from Holy Family High School in Tulsa in May, 1958. He served in the United States Navy from July, 1958, to July, 1962, as an Aerographer's Mate (weatherman) on aircraft carriers in the Pacific fleet. He attended Palm Beach Junior College and the University of Tulsa before receiving the Bachelor of Science in Journalism degree from the University of Florida in March, 1968. Previously, he was a reporter for the Tulsa Tribune, Palm Beach Post-Times, and St. Petersburg Times. After receiving his bachelor's degree, he worked as a reporter, entertainment magazine editor, and art columnist for the Fort Lauderdale News. He returned to the University of Florida and taught journalism as a graduate assistant before receiving the Master of Arts in Journalism and Communications degree in December, 1972. He then began his doctoral program in the Department of Educational Administration, University of Florida, and specialized in community college administration. While working toward his doctorate, he was a graduate research associate with the Florida Community Junior College

Inter-institutional Research Council, University of Florida. During 1974-75, he was associate director of the multi-media research project at Central Florida Community College in Ocala.

Roland Joseph Scott is married to the former Gail Pearsall of Fort Lauderdale, Florida.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

James L. Wattenbarger, Chairman
Professor of Education

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Phillip A. Clark
Associate Professor of Education

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Benjamin L. Gorman
Professor of Sociology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Harry H. Griggs
Professor of Journalism and
Communications

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Education and to the Graduate Council, and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

August, 1975

B L Sharp & M C Baker

Dean, College of Education

Dean, Graduate School

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